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*We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications: and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.*

### NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Peace is not yet proclaimed but it is a fact. There is no need to fear any hitches in the formal arrangements that remain to be completed. This happy consummation has come as a surprise to the world; there can be little doubt that very few expected any such result. Under Heaven, we must thank first the wisdom and good sense of the Japanese Government, second the ability of M. Witte, and third the good offices of Mr. Roosevelt. He would be a curmudgeon indeed who grudged Mr. Roosevelt his share in the glory. Whether he did much or did little to bring about the actual result, he certainly did something, and for that the world is his debtor. Alike from the use of arms and from laying them down Japan gets much glory and at least as much substantial profit; Russia gets a lesson; and the spectator nations many morals. It would be a strange portent indeed if, as reported, the making of peace were marked by an earthquake at the place of concord: the historic antithesis to Trasimenus, when "an earthquake rolled unheededly away".

The actual terms of peace are already well known though the formal treaty is now in course of elaboration. Japan obtains terms which are even more advantageous in effect than they appear on paper. The menace of Russian encroachment upon Japan proper disappears, for Russia withdraws altogether from Manchuria and leaves Korea to Japan which also acquires the Liao Tung peninsula and the localities on which Russia has spent such vast sums in recent years. The southern section of the Manchurian railway is restored to China; which of course means to Japan. Russia retains the north-eastern section for commercial purposes only. Japan also receives the right of fishing from Vladivostok northwards, a very substantial gain, and the southern

half of Sakhalin; she is also to be generously compensated for all her expenditure on Russian prisoners and wounded.

Japan on her side retires from the northern half of Sakhalin, abandons her claim for an indemnity and for the cession of the Russian warships interned in neutral harbours, and withdraws her demand that Russia's naval forces in the Far East should be limited to a certain strength. Both Korea and Sakhalin offer opportunities for enormous commercial and industrial development. Both regions are rich in minerals, and the climate of Sakhalin is grossly maligned. The renewal of the British alliance with Japan cannot fail to impress men's minds with the difficulty of indicating another instance in history where one of two allies has developed her value as a party to an international bargain with such startling and dramatic effect. We will not say that those who doubted the wisdom of the original arrangement have been made to look foolish, for they had much apparent reason on their side, but foreign observers who credit our statesmen with more shrewdness than do critics at home have been once again justified by results.

It is fortunate for the Japanese, as for the world, that they are better men than their backers in the newspapers. If newspapers could exercise much influence on these high matters, there very certainly would have been no peace. The best excuse for the meddling of the correspondents is that they very likely realise for how little they count. For that reason they may think they cannot do very much harm. Not but that some of them have been exceedingly successful in obtaining news. From other than a journalistic point of view there is the worst mischief. Everybody agrees—in private—that when delicate matters are forward, the less said about them the better. But the press of every country acts on exactly the opposite principle. Mr. Roosevelt's message to the Kaiser shows how wilfully misleading, and without a tittle of justification, have been the malignant falsehoods scattered broadcast that German influence has been exercised against the conclusion of peace.

The formal announcement that a new Anglo-Japanese treaty has been signed is no surprise. It has been an open

secret for many weeks that a new treaty was near completion, and everybody has a very fair idea of its contents. It is, of course, an amplification and extension of the old one; binding the two countries together much more closely than before. It is not impossible that a definite engagement has been entered into by Japan to provide a certain quota of troops to assist us in the event of an invasion of India. But the time for discussion of details is not yet. There is a certain piquancy in the date of signature. Hands may have been put to the document at the very moment when the Lords and Commons were entertaining the French naval officers in Westminster Hall. It is perhaps a small aspect of a large matter, but the new treaty should help the ministry at the next election. Mr. Balfour may decide to go to the country upon it in the autumn. He will never get a better chance.

The latest news from Morocco is that the Sultan has consented to release the Algerian French subject whom he had improperly seized and thrown into prison, but there is no hint as to any payment of damages, and this is likely to prove the most dangerous crux of the situation. The man according to his own account has suffered greatly in health from his imprisonment, and indeed a Moorish prison at this season can hardly be salubrious. The whole business is, as a matter of fact, rather a stroke of luck for French policy, for if properly handled it cannot fail to raise the prestige of that country at the Sultan's Court, where it had sadly fallen. There can be little doubt that German advice brought about the prompt acquiescence in the demand for release which was certainly not apparent a few days ago. Meanwhile no real progress seems to be made with the preparations for the Conference, and it is difficult to see why the matter hangs fire if all be working as smoothly as we were assured a week or two since.

M. Rouvier indeed cut his holiday short and returned to Paris in a great hurry a fortnight back but wisely proffered excellent reasons on the surface for his sudden appearance in the capital. Highly placed and intelligent Frenchmen have whispered the most sinister insinuations as to this rapid *déménagement* of the Premier. The fear of war with Germany has been again before them during the last few weeks with even greater force than it was throughout the country two months ago. The Kaiser's wrath was held to be still unappeased and the menace of invasion was again upon the land. Peace between Russia and Japan was therefore desired even more ardently in Paris than in those countries themselves and no one need wonder at the effusion with which it is welcomed in French circles not only financial but political as well.

The reception of the British fleet in Germany has given no handle to the Yellow Press in either country. Everything has passed in the utmost harmony and correctness. The sailors of each fleet have entertained one another and a banquet has been given to our principal officers at which Admiral Wilson showed once again that men of his calling are often the best diplomats. With the charming courtesy which distinguishes a certain section of the British press wherever the Kaiser is concerned, these papers have declined to accept the obvious explanation of the presence of the German fleet at Swinemünde that it was sent on a visit of courtesy and are racking their brains to find some unpleasant explanation because the Kaiser did not himself put in an appearance. We may suggest a far more sinister design than any they have hit on. The German fleet was sent with instructions to sink our ships by means of torpedoes launched under cover of darkness while the principal officers were away dining; but an intimation that peace was about to be signed caused the Kaiser to wire a countermanding order. This is quite as good an explanation and far more exciting than those invented in other offices.

The situation in Arabia demands some attention. It is obvious that the construction of a railway from Asia Minor to the Red Sea will greatly facilitate the Turkish command of provinces that have always given little more than a nominal submission to the Caliph.

At present the line has been completed as far as a point about ninety miles south of the Dead Sea; the last thirty kilometres of this section were opened yesterday. When the short branch from Haifa to Dera'a is ready for traffic next month, it will probably be of considerable commercial advantage, and will at least save the heavy freight rates paid on the French Damascus Beirût line. Barring a general Arab revolt, which is possible but not probable, there is nothing to prevent the line being carried as far as the Hedjaz within a few years. It is unnecessary to point out how this may ultimately strengthen the Sultan's claim to a universal Caliphate and indirectly affect our position in the Persian Gulf. It is lucky that the exceptional ability of our representative on the spot has brought the Aden Hinterland dispute to a satisfactory conclusion, but we may yet have trouble about Koweit.

The stories of an Armenian plot to cause dynamite explosions on a large scale in the neighbourhood of Smyrna must be received with all caution. We cannot help connecting them to some extent with the recent outrage at Constantinople and we sincerely hope the stories may not be spread officially in order to discount beforehand massacres now in preparation. Smyrna is thickly populated by Europeans, and what possible end Armenian Revolutionary Committees could gain from inflaming European opinion against their countrymen by destroying European property is beyond the wit of man to conceive. The Smyrna-Aidin line is in English hands and why should Armenians desire to blow up its bridges? It is well to consider all unconfirmed reports from the East by the light of reason and common-sense, rather than rashly to accept the charges of any one section of the population against another. Trouble threatens between the United States and Turkey over the man arrested, trouble which may arise any day in our own case over the many alleged British subjects in Smyrna.

The controversy between the Viceroy of India, the Commander-in-Chief, and the Secretary of State was from the first disfigured by the introduction of a strong personal element which ought to be absent from deliberations concerning important matters of State. In the later phase, it degenerated into an undignified wrangle between the two protagonists. More deplorable still is the publicity given to a vulgar altercation which reduces the Government of India to the level of a vestry. The spectacle of these great officials bandying charges of misrepresentation and misconstruction of facts would be unseemly in any case. Under the special conditions of British rule in India it is a positive source of weakness and therefore danger.

Even if the full materials were available, not much would be gained, now that the Viceroy's retirement is settled, by an endeavour to determine the merits of this latest dispute: but at least it may be asked whether the publicity which is its most serious feature could not have been prevented. Even if Lord Curzon and Lord Kitchener knew no better, it is scarcely conceivable that these "strongly worded minutes" of theirs could have been published, presumably in the Government Gazette, without a previous reference to the India Office. Moreover the correspondence already given to the world must have prepared Mr. Brodrick for some further development of this aspect of the quarrel. The wondrous capacity for indiscretion which has characterised the whole episode seems to have been inexhaustible.

Prince Louis of Battenberg's visit to Canada in command of the Second Cruiser Squadron would be notable if only for the utterances at the banquet given in his honour on Wednesday by Mr. Urquhart, the Mayor of Toronto. Mr. Urquhart predicted that Canada would in due time realise the importance of contributing her share both of men and ships to the imperial navy. The progress of Canadian business will render such a contribution essential to Canada's sense of security and freedom of action. Ten years hence, the Prince believes, Canada will be able to feed Great Britain's forty millions of people, and the navy must be equal to safeguarding the transport of her foodstuffs across the Atlantic. It was the consciousness that this

great development is ahead which induced the Conservative Convention in Calgary a few days ago to pass an enthusiastic resolution in favour of preferential tariffs. Agriculture, not manufactures, will ensure the future prosperity of the Dominion, and Canada will hardly sacrifice the greater for the less, as her manufacturers are inviting her to do.

A circular issued by the West India Committee throws out the thinly-veiled suggestion that the British West Indies will look to the United States if the proposed union with Canada is not arranged. The prosperity of the islands which the United States have taken under their wing is contrasted with the state of British possessions in the Antilles and a string of grievances against the imperial Government is drawn up. The "unnecessarily protracted" war against the sugar bounties, the withdrawal of imperial troops and the recent mail contract are among the causes of complaint. There was a time when the West Indies were regarded as the most precious of England's possessions, but with the access of cosmopolitanism half a century ago they became the neglected estates of the Empire and remained so until Mr. Chamberlain took them in hand. If federation with Canada were practicable, the Dominion Government would proceed to do for the islands what the imperial Government should have done long ago. There is no reason why Cuba should flourish whilst Jamaica languishes.

One of the chief arguments in favour of the federation of Australia, for years before it was accomplished, was the necessity for the development of a national scheme of defence. After five years of federation the Commonwealth Government seems to have come to the conclusion that it is high time something was done. A committee, consisting of the Premier, the Defence Minister, and the Treasurer, has been appointed to report on the matter, and it is expected that its recommendations will be available in the course of a month or six weeks. Australian borrowings in the past have been mainly devoted to internal development. It is now anticipated that a considerable loan will be wanted in order that the necessary works may be undertaken. The Australian Government considers that much more requires to be done than can be provided out of revenue. If Australia were wise, she would increase her contribution to the Imperial Navy. The committee's views on this point will be awaited with no small interest.

When fifty thousand coolies are employed in a wild country of wide distances like the Rand, it is not strange if a certain number break loose and become a terror to the locality. Some Chinese deserters from the mines have committed three or four crimes recently, and the opponents of the introduction of "yellow skins" are raising an alarm which might suggest that half the indentured coolies had taken to the roads. Apparently the real trouble is that police enough were not originally enrolled, and the authorities are now compelled to adopt such special measures as supplying arms to farmers in outlying places. The blame for police deficiency must rest with the agitators at home who talked so much of slavery that the Transvaal Government were unwilling to give them an excuse for further misrepresentation. General Botha has brought the matter to the attention of Lord Selborne, and the High Commissioner, whilst indicating the steps now being taken to deal with the wandering Chinese, pointed out that the vast majority of the coolies were orderly. The opportunity for scare headlines is, however, too tempting for journalistic human nature to resist.

Is China too among the prophets? China must have her parliament like other people. So Prince Ching gives a dinner—everything quite European, you see—to a commission which is to perambulate the world assaying the virtues of parliaments. The Chinese gentleman lacks nothing in acumen, and his manners are models to us all. If he sees much of parliaments beyond the ceremony of opening and closing, he will report dead against the experiment; and the day of meeting will have to be adjourned sine die from the "twelve years hence" of the Empress. It is said, by the way, that

the commission had thoughts of travelling via Canada to avoid the United States. Evidently they did not want to prejudice the case for parliaments.

The anti-Magyar section of the Hungarian army does not seem to be showing much wisdom in its treatment of Magyar sentiment. A few days ago at Kaschau two officers of an infantry regiment invaded the office of a newspaper which had attacked their regiment for an incident that had arisen out of the language question. They wounded the editor who defended himself with a revolver and "winged" one of the officers, who between them afterwards killed a blameless compositor come to his chief's rescue. The man's funeral took place this week amid scenes of great popular excitement, 100,000 sympathisers being present. The superior officers are "making an inquiry", but have already assumed that the officers acted in self-defence, and the Government is prosecuting the editor. It is right enough that journalistic violence should be curbed, but anything more hopelessly devoid of tact than the proceedings of both the Government and military at this crisis it is impossible to conceive.

The suicide of M. Cronier following on the collapse of the Jaluzot combinations causes a most serious situation in the French sugar market. M. Cronier was the founder and chairman of the immense Say sugar combination and he was found dead in his house on Monday last. It is now clear that he took his own life, being unable to meet his financial engagements. It is said that his liabilities amounted to £4,000,000 sterling. His financial position was so strong that it is stated that a loss of three-quarters of a million would not have ruined him. The prospects of a record beet crop appear to have upset his calculations which had led him to buy very heavily anticipating a great rise in prices. Apparently it is not only in novels that great speculators defy Nature herself. Unfortunately M. Cronier's collapse will probably throw large numbers out of work and may ruin many more, the small investor being far more in evidence in France than here. After all there is some excuse for the primitive man, very common in that country, who buries his hardy earned francs under a tree.

The Army Council has now issued a communiqué dispelling the unfounded charges made against it in connection with the Scottish Volunteer Review. The review was in no way ordered by the War Office. But on the military authorities being informed that the King wished to review the Scottish Volunteers, every effort was made to further the movement. No money had been provided in the Estimates for this purpose; and with some difficulty the sum of £4,000 was obtained by subtraction from other branches. There was no precedent for such a subvention; and surely now no impartial person can say that any slight whatever has been offered to the Volunteers. On the contrary the Army Council did all they possibly could to assist the Scotch Volunteers in carrying out the review which they themselves had initiated.

Mr. Long gave Sir West Ridgeway too much of an advertisement at Bristol on Saturday last. If a person writes a malicious article, as Sir West Ridgeway has done in the "Nineteenth Century", he is always pleased when somebody, and especially somebody who counts, attacks him for it. He gains his main object—notoriety. Sir West Ridgeway might have been left alone. Mr. Long's lines of policy for Ireland—as laid down in his speech—are sound enough: if he acts steadily on them he will do exceedingly well. The Coercion cry is silly: why, the Nationalists themselves prove it by having so little to parade on that count, and, indeed, very little even to say on it. Mr. Long is propounding but the elementary rules of social existence when he insists that a man who is living a lawful life must be allowed to live it in peace. We are glad to find Mr. Long pledging himself so stoutly to constructive social policy as well. He does not stop at "lavish" public expenditure to that end. And we must say that he gave the charge—a very serious charge—that the Government had put themselves in the hands of the Ulster extremists its quietus, when he pointed out that he had not removed Sir Antony MacDonnell.

The Institute of Journalists has been holding its great annual palaver this week. Amidst all their talk it is not easy to discover the reason of the Institute's being, except the deficiencies of journalists. If they were in earnest, they would do something instead of talking and dining. That will not give education and good taste (except perhaps for half an hour after the banquet) and conscience and responsibility to journalists who lack these things. The best thing that can happen for journalism will be the growth of an unwritten law that no man is fit for its higher branches unless he has been called to the Bar. That is not a guarantee of anything but it raises a tolerable presumption of something. Very many who write for the press, of course, are barristers; it ought to be expected that they would be. Or if that appears too narrow a basis, shall we say, barristers or "Varsity men"?

Of the various papers read at the adjourned meeting of the British Association at Johannesburg, none is of more practical interest than Sir C. Scott Moncrieff's on Irrigation. Only the man who has seen what has been done in Italy, in India, in Egypt and in California can appreciate the veritable romance of agriculture which the engineer has brought about. In India the irrigation canal has turned millions of acres to fertility and saved tens of thousands of lives which must have succumbed to famine. In the Western States of America vast deserts have been converted into orchards, and the land which would otherwise be dear at five dollars an acre has become worth fifty. Much of the British triumph in Egypt is summed up in the word irrigation. English engineers—Sir C. Scott Moncrieff among them—came from India after the British occupation and have ever since been engaged in some of the greatest irrigation works in the world, so that Egyptian agriculture has developed beyond the dreams of the most sanguine. Whether extensive irrigation would be good for South Africa or even possible, Sir C. Scott Moncrieff did not attempt to say, but there are many who believe that agricultural progress in South Africa will be small without the help of irrigation.

An expectant world was largely disappointed on Wednesday. The long-talked-of eclipse of the sun, as far as the vast majority of people were concerned, itself suffered eclipse in the shape of heavy clouds. Some who remembered that the great event was to take place soon after mid-day attributed the gloom and cold which prevailed to the intervention of the moon. Thousands of curious mortals armed with smoked glass were prepared to turn themselves into amateur astronomers, but except in certain favoured places the eclipse was invisible. Londoners in particular have grave cause for complaint that they should have been denied the opportunity of witnessing so interesting a phenomenon. In North Africa the different scientific missions seem to have enjoyed varying degrees of successful observation and record. As usual the African natives who perceived what was happening gave themselves up to strange terrors; if the Sultan of Morocco had not the day before ordered the release of the French Algerian, the eclipse would conceivably have been attributed to evil spirits on the side of the infidel.

We welcome the Aliens Act, but we admit we should be sorry to see in this country such official harrying as is revealed by the experiences of a Mr. Paterson of Glasgow on the boundary line between Canada and the United States. This gentleman, who had a ticket from Winnipeg to Toronto, was charged with being an alien intending to settle in the United States when travelling on that portion of the line which runs through their territory. He had of course no such intention and said so. He was then subjected in the train to a close inspection by the officials who entered in their minutes a full description of his person. The belief thereby inspired in his fellow travellers that he was a defaulting bank cashier was the least of his troubles, for on arrival at Emerson he was hauled off to an office where he paid the \$2 fee demanded and received a paper authorising him to recover it from the U.S. commissioner at Montreal. Strangers are accustomed to this kind of formality in Turkish territory but a Russian official would hardly be guilty of such absurdities.

#### A POLITIC PEACE.

FROM whatever point of view we regard the terms on which peace has been secured, they are highly satisfactory. Both upon the moral and the political side they reflect infinite credit on the parties concerned and especially upon the diplomatists who have conducted the negotiations with credit to themselves and honour to their respective nations. This credit is only enhanced by the material difficulties by which they were surrounded. Congratulation is due to President Roosevelt for bringing them together, but the American people has little to pride itself upon in the setting it provided for the tableau. The plenipotentiaries might indeed make plaint to their sovereigns in the words of the Apostle, "We have been made a spectacle to all men for your sakes". Nothing but the greatest tact, forbearance and determination could have brought about a successful issue amid such surroundings, and the world may now weigh without impropriety the gain and loss resulting from the stupendous struggle by land and sea now happily arrested. The most encouraging feature about the terms of peace is that neither Power has allowed itself to be affected by its self-constituted advisers. The gentlemen who from the security of a newspaper office have been dictating extreme counsels have been ignored and even the more responsible partisans who demanded no concession have met with no encouragement. Russia adheres, except in one particular, to the position she openly and resolutely maintained from the first, while Japan has obtained far more than she dreamed of demanding eighteen months ago.

This is beyond any dispute, and is apparently left out of sight by those who speak as if Japan had renounced at the bidding of humanity the major part of her claims because she has dropped some. Before the war she asked for the recognition of her predominant influence in Korea and of the territorial integrity of Korea and China, and for the establishment of the principle of the "open door" in Manchuria. She now obtains the control of Korea recognised by Russia, the evacuation of Manchuria by Russia and the abandonment of the southern branch of the Manchurian railway, the surrender to her by Russia of the leases held in the Liao Tung Peninsula, in other words of Port Arthur, Dalny, and the Blonde and Elliott islands. Japan also obtains the southern half of Sakhalin, fishing rights on the Siberian coast from Vladivostok northward, and a promise by Russia that her use of that portion of the Manchurian railway which she still retains shall be purely commercial. Now these are gains so considerable in themselves that the energies of Japan and her statesmen will be well occupied for many years in developing their advantages and in consolidating her now preponderating influence in the Far East. For it must be borne in mind that the bare provisions of the Treaty do not enumerate all, or perhaps the most important part of the gains made by the victorious side. The greatest advantage acquired by Japan is not merely her territorial increase. No reasonable being doubts that the regions and the railway nominally handed over to China will pass in effect to the Power that controls China and the peace substitutes without question the influence of Japan for that of Russia at the Court of Peking. The "peaceful penetration" of China by Japanese influences in every direction during the last few years has been a process noted by some on the spot, but curiously ignored by the outside world. Finally the greatest asset acquired by Japan as the result of a successful war is the immense accession of prestige due to her as the first Asiatic State that has met and conquered a great European Power in single combat since the Turks took Constantinople. The actual feat of the Japanese is indeed greater and the world may yet find that its results will be hardly less memorable.

Russia on the other hand acknowledges with a becoming sense of the accomplished fact that she has sustained grave reverses and she does not continue slaughter in the pursuit of a forlorn hope. But she saves herself from the humiliating recognition of her effacement as a fighting force which would follow upon the payment of a large indemnity and the complete surrender of Sakhalin. Serious though her defeats

have been both by land and sea, no one with the least political sense really believes that she is in the same position as France in 1871 or Turkey in 1878. Even had Vladivostock fallen, the exaction of a tribute would have been an impossibility had Russia resolved to retire northwards and bide her time, while reorganising her resources. On the other hand while Japan was perfectly right at first to demand the uttermost farthing she desired, the compulsory limitation of Russia's naval forces in the Far East and the surrender of her ships in neutral harbours were obviously terms which no Power could concede and still live as a Power. They could only be exacted from a defeated foe that was seeking to save its mere existence as a nation. Jules Favre's famous mot "not an inch of our territory, not a stone of our fortresses" was mere vapouring; but Russia's position was such that she could still refuse territory or tribute without insulting common sense. Indeed her surrender of the southern half of Sakhalin was not inevitable but a sagacious recognition of equal sagacity on the part of the adversary.

But the wisdom of the peacemaking is emphasised by the nature of the peace itself. It is not a mere truce between wars, like the paces between England and the Bourbons in the eighteenth century. This peace has in it all the elements of stability. A few years occupation of Korea and Liao Tung will make the Japanese position practically impregnable—statesmen do not break their heads against stone walls, they seek the line of least resistance. This will be so with Russia. It may prove inconvenient for other Powers but that is not the business of Japan. Russia again is not barred out of the Pacific as she would have been by the unconditional surrender of Sakhalin to her adversary; her trade may flow southward as freely as in the past and will do so with a greatly increased velocity as Japan develops her new territories. On the practical side therefore the peace promises well, but on the question of sentiment it seems to us even more satisfactory. A good fight between nations as between individuals often leaves them better friends when there is no humiliation purposely inflicted, but no peace can be stable where one side feels that its successful adversary has degraded its honour as a nation by the nature of the terms it has exacted. Of course we do not refer to cases where one side is completely annihilated as a Power to be reckoned with, but we may see the effect of moderation if we compare the case of the relations between Austria and Prussia after the peace of Dresden in 1745 and after the peace of Prague in 1866. In the first case the humiliation was such that the vanquished Power determined on a new effort at the first opportunity; in the second considerate treatment resulted in an alliance within less than twenty years between victor and vanquished. We do not feel at all sure that within measurable distance a similar result may not yet ensue in the present case.

It was not to be expected that the extremists in either country would recognise the benefits to follow on moderation; if they had done so they would no longer be extremists. But it is greatly to be regretted that the comments made by foreigners do not reflect the good sense of the rival diplomatists. A large portion of our own press has not only exhibited the worst taste in its treatment of the negotiations but has done its best, since the arrangement was made, to mar the excellent results of Japanese and Russian common sense. It is not only bad international manners but the silliest twaddle to talk of Japan's "great renunciation" and of M. Witte's "triumph" when it is evident to all men that no peace was ever made which more faithfully registered the exact degree of success attained by the victorious party up to the time of its conclusion or more exactly measured the resisting force still existing in the defeated side. M. Witte has to face the Russian military party and will not thank his journalistic friends for their equivocal testimonials to his talents. We can understand that some people of little political judgment are angry because the Power they dislike has not been more grievously humiliated and that they care little if they make more difficult the task of the Japanese political leaders who have shown so much judgment and self-

restraint but have yet to convince many of their own people that the truest wisdom lies in not tempting Fortune too far. Our own statesmen would not be ill-advised if they took a lesson from our allies in indifference to the clamour of the moment and in reliance on results for the full justification of political wisdom. No Power in making peace ever expects to make good every demand, even Bismarck did not acquire Belfort, and it is the last act of folly for her friends to belittle the enormous gains, material and moral, won by Japan in the war which she has known how to wage and to end with equal dignity and success.

### THE MAGYAR MESS.

NOT the least disquieting feature in the European situation to-day is to be found in the state of Hungary. Every week brings with it some fresh cause of disaffection and there is ground for serious apprehension as to the consequences when their Parliament reassembles. The Fejervary Cabinet does not pretend that it commands parliamentary support and therefore its retention of power can only be excused on the same grounds that justified Pitt in his struggle against Fox and North. But it would appear, at all events at present, that there is but little prospect of popular approval in addition to the Crown making up as in Pitt's case for the hostility of the Chamber and, if rumour is to be believed, the Prime Minister has advised the Sovereign, in the event of parliamentary defeat, to authorise him to take steps which cannot but be extremely grave in their consequences for the whole country. We are well aware that the questions demanding immediate solution are many and serious. Commercial treaties with foreign Powers remain unratified, the recruiting system of the country is at a standstill, passive resistance against the payment of taxes prevails and the coalition, which enjoys a large majority, refuses to take office. When one party declines its constitutional obligations, it cannot be surprised if the other seeks a remedy also without the Constitution and proposes to meet the current expenses of the State without direct parliamentary sanction. At the same time it proposes to proceed as if the treaties were really approved by Parliament and to ignore the question of recruits and mobilising sufficient reserves to complete the requisite numbers for service in the army for the current season.

All these steps may be excused by the formula that "the king's government must be carried on", but the further developments of the Fejervary programme open out still graver subjects for consideration. If the majority proves obdurate as before, declines to take office and makes parliamentary government an impossibility, the Cabinet propose to appeal to the country, promising, if returned to power, to bring in at once sweeping measures of land reform and a universal suffrage bill giving votes to all Hungarian citizens over twenty-five, irrespective of race, who can read and write. It is evident on the surface that this proposal does place the coalition in an awkward dilemma. It at once arrays on the side of the Government the Socialist party and the non-Magyar politicians throughout the country. While the Magyar element is by far the best educated and most advanced in Hungary, it is also the most united. In a total population of about 17 millions there are roughly 8,600,000 Magyars, 3 million Roumanians, 2 million Germans, 2 million Slovaks and one million of other races, but by the present electoral system the Magyar element commands a much greater majority in Parliament than is due to it merely on numerical grounds. It is quite evident therefore that fresh sources of discord and confusion may be set flowing by the passage of such a bill as is foreshadowed by the Fejervary proposals. In any case the Coalition may find themselves face to face with a much more critical election than they anticipated, if they think it their duty to provoke the Government to a fresh appeal to the polls.

Of course, according to all constitutional usage, the victorious party assumes the burdens of office but the Magyar majority declines to do so because it has ascertained beforehand that the King will not accept its

advice to adopt the Hungarian language for all military purposes in the Hungarian army. This, as head of the army, he is of course quite competent to do, on the ground that it will seriously impair the efficiency of the forces of the Dual Monarchy as a military entity. Meanwhile the army itself has become unpopular, especially with the Socialists, as it is indicating a dangerous tendency to take the law into its own hands. In spite of the provocation offered by the gross licence of the modern press it is by no means expedient that truculent young officers should be allowed to execute newspaper men on their own initiative and certainly composers are not fair game, consequently it is not surprising that the murder at Kaschau of one of these useful and innocent journalistic acolytes by an officer should lead to intense popular indignation throughout Hungary. The Government has not shown prudence in instituting proceedings just at this crisis against the editor of the newspaper in question for incitements against the army. The whole affair will only tend gravely to increase the unpopularity of the ministerial policy.

Amid this welter of discordant elements it is almost impossible for foreigners to draw just conclusions and it is therefore only an impertinence on their part to attempt to dictate policy; but there are two good reasons why at this moment the Hungarian question calls for some notice: in the first place it is of European importance and in the second our friendship with the Magyars is traditional and distinguished politicians among them have directly appealed for British sympathy. Hungarians we are told are distressed at British "indifference" in these matters and compare it with the interest we showed in Hungarian aspirations in the days of Palmerston. But the situation is entirely different, Hungary is no longer an oppressed country. If it be true, as Hungarians say, that the industrial and political centre of gravity has shifted from German Austria to Hungary, we look to the triumphant Hungarians to show due moderation and tact in their dealings with their sovereign whom all Englishmen regard with affectionate reverence as their best friend among crowned heads. It may be that successive extensions of the suffrage have shifted the balance of power in this country away from the classes who are enabled by training and capacity to take a wide view of foreign affairs but it is undoubted that public opinion here is now much more intensely national and less cosmopolitan than it was and it is much less easy to inflame it about the real or fancied wrongs of other countries. This has its bad as well as its good side, but in any case it will be quite impossible to excite people in Great Britain over a purely constitutional struggle in Hungary as they were excited over the military executions and flogging of women forty years ago. Both the nature and method of conflict have changed, and Hungary herself stands in so stong a position that she can afford to work out her national development irresistibly but without violence.

We are quite aware that newspaper correspondents intrude upon us an unnecessary amount of political controversy in this affair, and omit the economic side of the question which is perhaps the more important. Hungary is united with Austria in a Customs union which is often galling, for her own local industries are crushed by the competition of cheap Austrian manufactures while on the other hand Hungary has no equivalent; for the commercial treaties made by Austria-Hungary with foreign countries entail the admission of German and Roumanian agricultural products almost free of duty in order that Austrian manufactures may pass at a low rate of duty into those countries, but these low duties do not apply to agricultural products passing into Germany. Consequently Hungarian agriculture is deprived both of its foreign and its Austrian market to oblige Austrian manufacturing interests. This is a very serious grievance, for in Hungary the State does more for agriculture than in any other country and agriculture is by far the greatest industry in the land. We have no hesitation in saying that if Austrian statesmen would help to rectify this cause of difference, much of the purely political divergence between the two States would cease.

Some such solution is devoutly to be wished, for the

stability of the Austrian Empire is a condition of European peace. The present agitation gives an opportunity to the Magyar jingoes who may prove as troublesome as pan-Germans. In the case of a serious disruption within Austria-Hungary an almost irresistible opportunity would be offered to ambitions without which would plunge Europe into war. It would be an impossibility for Hungary to keep her independence between a gigantic Russia and Germany. Even if she managed for a time to maintain her equilibrium between these vast forces the position of an état tampon is far from enviable and any notion of a great Hungarian State stretching down the Adriatic is ridiculous. The maintenance by the Magyars of their national individuality has the sympathy of all Englishmen but they will best serve their own interest by strengthening the monarchy of which they form already the most vital factor.

#### SOLDIERS v. CIVILIANS.

THE unseemly dispute between Lord Curzon and Lord Kitchener has once again brought into prominence the question and the difficulties of the adjustment of military and civil influence, more exactly of military direction to ultimate civil control. Civilian predominance in military matters is of course a patent absurdity, and difficult to defend from a logical standpoint. Nor does it occur in any other profession, with the single exception of the British navy. The Lord Chancellor is head of the law, and the Primate of the Church, and so it is all through. Why then should soldiers and sailors alone be considered incapable of managing their own affairs? It is not as if the army had not produced capable administrators in other walks of public life: nor is it generally the case in other countries that the supreme direction of military matters rests in the hands of civilians. On this Review we have no special reverence for the British Constitution which, in the estimation of at least one celebrated foreign jurist, does not exist at all. We prefer to consider the subject mainly from the point of practical expediency, and without special consideration for precedent or tradition. Still, in spite of this resolution, we cannot help realising that in a country like ours the difficulties of a supreme military chief would be considerable. To start with he would be more distrusted, and so would have greater difficulty in obtaining the requisite funds, than a civilian Secretary of State. He would almost necessarily be an officer at the close of his career, since, after holding such a post, he could hardly occupy a subordinate position; whilst, unless senior and distinguished, he would carry no weight. Hence it is almost inevitable that he should be an old man. It is true that the age disqualification might be discounted in the case of a Royal Prince. But a soldier in such a post in these days would inevitably have to become a party politician, and would almost necessarily have to go out and come in with ministries. The post could thus hardly be occupied by a member of the Royal Family. Moreover in a country where facility of speech counts for so much—although it is true some War Secretaries have been poor speakers—it is rare to find a soldier possessing the necessary qualifications. Certainly there are some, Sir Henry Brackenbury for instance; but such cases are rare. Still, even if a soldier possessing all the necessary qualifications could be found—an eminent officer in the prime of life—it is doubtful whether this arrangement would be an unqualified advantage; as it is clear that to some extent it would introduce politics into military life, which bygone experience has proved to be undesirable. Lastly few eminent soldiers possess what has been called the "financial eye"; although, were real financial responsibility conferred upon them, this disability would in all probability disappear. On the whole then we must reluctantly admit that the disadvantages inherent in the appointment of a supreme military ruler outweigh its obvious advantages; and that as matters stand, the final word must rest with a civilian.

Putting aside the era of the somewhat shadowy captains-general, who flourished at intervals during the latter part of the seventeenth and throughout the

major part of the eighteenth centuries, the actual command of the army was supposed till 1793 to be vested in the Sovereign personally, whose orders were conveyed to the army by a Secretary at War. Needless to say this control by the Sovereign was largely illusory. He was too busy a man to attend to such details. The result was that power became concentrated in the hands of the Secretary at War; and the suitability of candidates for military appointments was determined by political services rather than military merit. So bad did the state of things become that in 1793 a Commander-in-Chief was appointed. The Secretary at War, however, still existed, and so arose the dual control which lasted until the Crimean War demonstrated its disadvantages. Above the Commander-in-Chief and the Secretary at War was the Secretary of State for War and the Colonies in vague supremacy, who in theory was responsible for the numbers of men and the movements of troops. He sat at the Colonial Office; and his military functions did not come into prominence except in time of war. No clear definition of duties was laid down in 1793. So a collision between the Commander-in-Chief and the Secretary at War was inevitable. Still this did not arise till 1810, when Sir David Dundas was Commander-in-Chief, and Lord Palmerston Secretary at War, on the question as to whether the Secretary at War could issue orders to the army. Eventually it was decided that he could, but that he should first show them to the Commander-in-Chief, appeal to the Government being made in case of disagreement. This system was not satisfactory. Not only was there a dual but a quadruple control, the Militia, Ordnance and Commissariat being in addition under different departments of State, with the result that four separate sets of military estimates were annually presented to Parliament. Finally the Crimean war brought matters to a crisis, and a Secretary of State for War alone was appointed. The Secretaryship at War was merged into the Secretaryship of State for War; and all military departments, including the Commander-in-Chief's, were consolidated under the new official. Still under the new plan the military departments remained at the Horse Guards, whilst the Secretary of State sat at the War Office; and, though he was supreme, the military departments carried on their work at Whitehall under the Commander-in-Chief, who settled most details which did not involve financial considerations. Matters therefore at the Horse Guards went on much as heretofore, except that the danger of disputes arising as to powers was obviated, since the Secretary of State was clearly supreme in the last resort, though in practice he acted as little more than a supreme financial arbiter.

This seems to be the best compromise which could be effected of a problem, which we admit is in the British case virtually insoluble. It is true that it had at least one noticeable drawback. Communication between the War Office and the Horse Guards was carried out by official letter, as between two entirely separate departments. No papers circulated between the two offices. Subjects were separately minuted in each, and each had its own registry. This of course gave rise to much delay; and was quite indefensible. But had this really small matter been adjusted, the civil and military staff been housed in proximity in an adequate building as they shortly will be, and affairs otherwise allowed to continue as they were, many of the subsequent difficulties would not have arisen. Nevertheless when the Liberal party came into power in 1868, Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Cardwell determined to bring the military departments completely down to every detail under the thumb of the Secretary of State; and as a means towards this end Mr. Cardwell removed the Commander-in-Chief and the military departments from Whitehall to Pall Mall. The policy then inaugurated of exalting the Secretary of State at the expense of the Commander-in-Chief was for a time arrested. For whilst the Duke of Cambridge still held office the circumstances were peculiar and exceptional. But with his retirement the War Secretaryship entered upon another phase; and the position of the Commander-in-Chief was reduced to a farce—at least in Lord Wolseley's time—by his being deprived of all

direct responsibility for the discipline and personnel of the army he was supposed to command. Now the Commandership-in-Chief has disappeared, and we have an Army Council, which cannot be said to command much respect. But the position of its military members is different from that of their colleagues on the Naval Board. Naval matters are so technical that the First Lord of the Admiralty has perforce to be guided by his expert advisers to a far larger extent than is the case with the War Secretary. Few laymen presume to hold decisive views on naval matters, yet what layman has not his own views how the army should be "run"? As a fact the power of the War Secretary is now more far-reaching than ever, because, whereas formerly there was a material check in the person of a Commander-in-Chief, who had the prestige of being supposed to be the first soldier of the day, there are now only four ordinary general officers, who together cannot carry nearly the same weight as an authoritative Commander-in-Chief. Long before the Army Council was created, we pointed out the anomalies inherent in the system and in the respective positions of the Secretary of State and the Commander-in-Chief. But after an adequate experience of an Army Council, we cannot help coming to the conclusion that the state of affairs as it existed after the compromise of 1854 and till 1870 was preferable, and that it possessed fewer disadvantages than any of the other numerous systems which at different times have been tried.

#### THE STARS IN THEIR COURSES.

ON Wednesday last Professor Darwin delivered at Johannesburg the second part of his presidential Address to the British Association. Discussing the first part, delivered at Capetown a fortnight ago, we had occasion to lodge a general objection to what appeared to be Professor Darwin's leading principle, his reiterated theme that a scientific theory gained in importance and truth almost in proportion to the width of its application. The Address endeavoured to sweep under one great generalisation what is called evolution in plants and animals, in political institutions, in the physics of molecules, atoms and electrons, and of planets and suns and stars. We submitted that if the facts brought under the generalisation were of the same order, their number had no relation to the scientific truth of the theory; that if the facts were of different orders, it was only by attenuating and formalising either the facts or the theory that the wide generalisation was possible. The opening paragraph of the second part of the address contains what is almost a parody of the defects of the method. Professor Darwin wished to convince his audience that there was evidence for a process of evolution in the stars and systems of cosmic space, and he hoped to make his conception not merely more plain, but more probable by a statement of a supposed process of evolution in political institutions. Consider his words—"All forms of the State imply inter-relationship in the actions of men, and action implies movement. Thus a State may be described as a configuration or arrangement of a community of men; or, we may say that it implies a definite mode of motion of men—that is to say, an organised scheme of action of man on man." Political institutions are definite configurations of men acting on men so as to produce modes of motion. Stellar systems are configurations of stellar bodies acting on stellar bodies so as to produce modes of motion. There has been a definite process of evolution observed in the "modes of motion of men", a rise and decline of stability and so forth. The "mode of motion of men" which is a parish vestry slowly reaches a position of maximum stability, then by some process of internal or external friction is gradually changed, and the vestry disappears. So also with the systems beyond Sirius. It is an amazing piece of reasoning. But the details are still more amazing. Terms such as "struggle for existence", "survival of the fittest", "species", and so forth, having been removed from their pregnant association with organisms that feed and reproduce, multiplying their kind beyond the limits of the food supply, have their outlines blurred and dulled

and their contents made meaningless, and are then transferred to political institutions and from these to moons or molecules.

It is a task almost beyond our power to disentangle this fallacious mesh of ideas. The dominant confusion, perhaps, lies in the use of the word evolution. Evolution is not a theory or a law, but an observed or inferred order of events. From observation of existing animals and plants and of the fossil remains of extinct animals and plants it is now held to be more than a fair inference that there has been an orderly succession of forms of life, from the more simple to the more complex, that the more complex have not sprung suddenly into existence but are linked with the simpler forms in a descending chain of simplicity. In the process, some forms have survived for long periods; others have had the briefest existence. As the stream has moved along, or can be imagined as having moved along, there have been eddies and torrents, backwaters and rapids, stable and unstable forms. A similar process can be observed or inferred in political institutions. Professor Darwin, in a deeply interesting and luminous fashion, has brought together his own observations and inferences and the observations and inferences of others, and has made it probable that a similar process has taken place and is taking place in the innermost depths of matter and in the spacious recesses of the universe. These processes observed, inferred or imagined are what we call evolution. But because there is a process of evolution of living organisms, it is not more probable that there is an evolution of political institutions, even making allowance for the fact that without living bodies there would be no political institutions. And certainly, because on the speck of the universe we call the earth, in the span of time that the earth has been habitable by living matter, there has been a certain order of events in the changes of the mixture we call protoplasm, the same process is no more probable for the plenitude of matter and combinations of matter of the whole universe, throughout the æons of time before and after the twenty millions or hundred millions of years of our solar system.

The theory of evolution is a very different thing from the process of evolution. By some turn of our nature, we are more disposed to believe that a thing happened if we think that we understand why it happened. By some turn in our nature we are driven to imagine the objective world as pressed into the moulds of causality which are our subjective world. These turns of the mind are the pride of man, the splendid dowry which, in the higher types, has transformed the will to live into the will to think, the will to comprehend, a dowry that is inexhaustible because the will to comprehend can never be satisfied. The history of theories is personal, because every theory has come from a man; it is impersonal because every theory is born of other theories and, in turn, gives birth to its successors. But the continuous impersonal history of theories is intensive not extensive. In each stage of its development, theory fits more closely with a particular set of facts; it is more closely associated with the details of these facts; it is of more particular, less general application. Charles Darwin's theory of evolution gained its splendid place in the history of the intellectual progress of mankind, precisely because it applied more closely to the details of living organisms, to the qualities of living organisms that distinguished them from organisms which are not alive. And if one read with attention the brilliant exposition of the theories of cosmic evolution which form the most valuable part of the Presidential Address we are now criticising, it will be apparent that these theories have successively applied more and more closely to the peculiar details of the bodies they concern. The nebular hypothesis, as propounded by Kant, fitted loosely to a loose conception of the constitution of stellar matter. Laplace dealt with more definite observed facts, and his theory was more precise. Professor Darwin, coming to grips with his own special subject, for the most part threw aside vague generalities, that would apply equally to starfish and stars, and step by step applied his theories to the known or inferred constitution of the heavenly bodies, treating them as having definite consistencies, forms, orbital and rotary motions. Each degree of precision, as it

added to the conviction in his own mind, and the mind of his audience, that his theory of the evolution of solar systems was an explanation of the facts, by so much lessened the possibility of identifying that theory with the theories of organic evolution, and by so much destroyed the plausibility of the framework of his Address.

#### THE CITY.

THE Stock Exchange has some justification for pluming itself, for collectively it has consistently held that peace would be made. There have been bad moments of course during the progress of negotiations and these have operated to prevent any undue piling-up of a "bull" account; on the other hand the generally hopeful feeling discouraged any considerable "bear" sales. The rise in prices which has taken place has not therefore been so violent as was anticipated in some quarters. The relief afforded by the welcome news was naturally very great and a sense of general satisfaction prevails that the financial and commercial world will now return to a more normal state. It is too early to forecast with any degree of certainty the immediate effect of peace on the London money market; the financial requirements of Russia and Japan must first be known. The necessities of Russia are greater than those of Japan, and within a short time probably a new Russian loan will be issued. However the total sum required by both countries is not likely to be very considerable, and with these issues disposed of the future appears to be very bright; we shall be much disappointed and surprised if the coming autumn and winter are not periods of great activity with rising prices all round.

Whilst the process of readjustment to the changed conditions is taking place it is natural to look for fairly wide fluctuations, but there is evidence that many investors and speculators who have been standing aside are now coming into the markets and with this new element to be reckoned with the trend is almost certain to be towards higher prices.

Turning to the actual changes during the week the most important, so far as international stocks are concerned, is in Russian 4 per cents. which are 5 points higher on balance. Japanese bonds are about 1 per cent. higher, but do not close at the best; the new  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. scrip having touched  $3\frac{1}{2}$  premium, the closing price being 3 per cent. English gilt-edged stocks have participated in the improvement, although top prices have not been maintained and home railway stocks have also risen—Dover "A" and Brighton "A" more especially having been bought.

The feature of the American railroad market has been the improvement in Canadian Pacific shares, which have established a fresh record at \$170 $\frac{1}{2}$ , whilst Minneapolis, S. Paul, and Sault Ste. Marie shares, to which we have frequently referred, are 15 points better on the week. Trunk issues have also been strong. The demand for Canadian securities has not been confined to railway shares, as the Hudson Bay Company's shares have been pre-eminent among the active stocks and have mounted upwards by leaps and bounds. The bountiful harvest in the Dominion is largely responsible for the strong support given to Canadian securities, assisted by the reports of an oil strike in the case of Hudson Bays. Calgary and Edmonton shares—another Canadian land company—have also been in request, and as an investment we consider the shares a satisfactory purchase at the present price of £2 $\frac{1}{2}$ . The recent land sales effected by the company averaged \$5.20 per acre and on the basis of \$5 an acre the shares are estimated to be worth £3, although it must be remembered that provision should be made for redemption of capital against the time when the assets of the company have been fully realised and paid out in the shape of dividend. Colonial and foreign land shares are decidedly in fashion just now, and although no wonderful advance has taken place in Argentine land issues there has been very good buying: we look for a further advance, more particularly in Argentine Great Southern Lands and Sante Fé Cordova Great Southern Lands.

The reports which are to hand from the United States as to the monetary situation emphasise the need for caution to which we referred a few weeks ago. There appears to be no doubt that the area of speculation has considerably widened and prices are becoming inflated in many instances, but the material prosperity is so great that it tends to a disregard of values, and whilst the shares of better lines are probably not above their intrinsic merits, the rise has carried with it a number of the junior issues which are little more than market counters at present. The marked prosperity of the United States is especially noticeable in the improvement in the affairs of the great industrial companies, and although, with few exceptions, we should not recommend an investment in the common stocks, the prior issues offer very favourable yields to those investors who do not exclude industrial securities merely because they belong to the industrial class. The following is a representative list of the prominent American industrial corporations, and it will be seen that the yield from the preferred stocks is generally higher than that derived from the analogous security in English companies :

Preferred Stocks	Rate p.c.	Price dols.	Yield	Surplus for Year dols.
American Locomotive Co. .. ..	7	112	6'29	3,675,539
Pressed Steel Car Co. ....	7	96½	7'34	2,037,111
American Agricultural Chemical Co. ..	6	91	6'75	426,790
American Cotton Oil Co. ....	6	95	6'39	30,548
American Smelting and Refining ..	7	122½	5'73	1,065,737
Federal Mining and Smelting Co. ..	7	93½	7'43	726,410
American Sugar Refining Co. ....	7	140	5'03	(not stated)
American Telegraph and Cable Co. ..	5	90	5'6	1,861,704
American Tobacco Co. ....	6	97½	6'2	12,235,131
American Woolen Co. ....	7	103½	6'8	1,642,330
Central Leather Co. ....	7	105	6'7	107,365
Diamond Match Co. ....	10	122	7'4	153,359
General Chemical Co. ....	6	106	5'7	429,131
Westinghouse Electric and Manufg. Co. ..	10	168	5'98	(not stated)
International Paper Co. ....	6	79	7'04	717,258
International Biscuit Co. ....	7	116	6'1	826,173
United States Rubber Co. ....	8	110½	7'36	1,879,883
United States Steel Corporation ..	7	105	6'76	5,047,822

The great range of industries comprised in the above list is very striking and the aggregate capital employed is on equally big lines. These powerful corporations assisted by high tariffs exercise a virtual monopoly in a number of the industries and the profits in good times are relatively higher than obtain in this country. All these companies are not of course of equal merit but with careful selection a well-secured 6 per cent. investment might be obtained—a yield which would be extremely useful in raising the average return on a moderate capital.

## INSURANCE.

### ROYAL EXCHANGE, LONDON ASSURANCE.

THE two oldest insurance companies transacting Life assurance, with the exception of the Union (which had been long in existence before commencing this branch of business) are the Royal Exchange and the London Assurance. Both these corporations were founded in 1720, and in their early days played a large part in the insurance world. It cannot be said that the present position of either of them indicates any great result for the work of nearly two centuries. Both remain comparatively small companies, and both transact a great variety of insurance business. At the same time the Royal Exchange is much the better known of the two, and enjoys far the greater popularity. Its accounts for the year 1904 show that its total funds amount to more than five millions, about half of which is held for the sole benefit of the Life policy-holders. The premium income in the Life department was only £250,000, of which 14 per cent. was paid away for commission and expenses. This does not represent the total expenditure of the company as compared with a Mutual Life office, since the proprietors take a considerable portion of the surplus. At the last valuation one-third of the surplus was taken by the shareholders and two-thirds distributed among participating policy-holders, but we believe that new policy-holders are now entitled to share in 90 per cent. of the surplus. Even when the policy-holders receive the smaller proportion the results under the Royal Exchange policies are distinctly good, and in future they should be better still. The Company

is so managed as to be attractive to policy-holders in all its departments.

For the proprietors few companies are more satisfactory; every five years they receive a substantial contribution from the Life Assurance funds, and the whole surplus of the Annuity business belongs to them as well as the profits derived from Fire, Marine and Accident business. As a rule the Fire business gives a substantial trading profit, but last year out of premiums amounting to £694,000 the loss by fire amounted to £465,000 and the commission and expenses to £247,000, showing a loss of about £18,000, which was largely due to the fire at Baltimore. The Marine Insurance business with a premium of £193,000 shows a trading profit of something like £57,000. The results of the Marine department cannot however be judged from any one year, and on several recent occasions this branch has shown a loss. Taking one year with another something like 10 per cent. of the premiums received are available as profit for the shareholders or as increase in the funds.

The recently established Accident department of the Royal Exchange usually shows substantial profits, but last year was an unfortunate one for this branch also. The premiums amounted to £117,000 and the losses and expenses to £125,000, thus showing a trading loss of about 7 per cent. of the premium income. Such fluctuations as these must be expected and in no way indicate careless or incompetent management, but of course in every department substantial funds are held and the interest on these funds goes far to compensate for the small margin of trading losses.

The London Assurance Corporation, founded in the same year as the Royal Exchange, also presents many different accounts to its proprietors every year. It transacts Life, Fire and Marine Insurance; the Life department being divided into participating and non-participating series. The participating policy-holders receive two-thirds of the surplus from their own series, the proprietors taking one-third and paying the expenses, but not the commission, on participating policies, and retaining for themselves the whole of the profits from the non-participating account. The results to the policy-holders are exceedingly poor. Comparing the London Assurance with a mutual company we find that the shareholders take something like 12 per cent. of the premium income, making the total expenses, including commission and dividends, about 26 per cent. of the premium income. These are conditions in which good bonus results on the policies are quite impossible. The Life business of the Corporation is as a natural consequence quite small and cannot be expected to increase, in fact it ought gradually to dwindle away unless the proprietors have the good sense to be content with a more reasonable share of the surplus. From the Fire branch the proprietors receive substantial profits. Last year the losses and expenses amounted to less than 90 per cent. of the premiums, and on the average of the past five years the profits in this department have been 20 per cent. of the premiums received. If to the Fire profits we add the surplus from the Marine account, and the interest on the accumulated funds, it is apparent that the proprietors could well afford to bring the Corporation into line with more progressive companies and give the holders of with-profit Life assurance policies a larger proportion of the surplus. If this were done it is possible that the Life policies might become popular, and quite probably by obtaining a larger business the proprietors would gain more in the long run than they receive at the present time.

### THE TRIPPER MIND.

IT would be an idle expenditure of moral indignation to pour contempt on the vulgarities of the British tripper. The antiseptic would not permeate so indurated a cuticle. Let us rather try to account for the self-debasement of the (otherwise) Respectable Person. We will not waste words on mere Hooligans—guffawing youths and their giggling mates—who make a mock of sacred places, who go into country churches and stick the fag-ends of their penny smokes between the lips of

marbled divines or bronzed warriors, or celebrate a sham wedding at the altar table. This, we assume, is funniment or Free Thought. In either case it is beneath us, and is only mentioned to explain why many incumbents who would otherwise throw the buildings under their charge open for rest or meditation are compelled to keep them under lock and key. Nor is it necessary to denounce the comparatively decent idiots who scratch their ignominious names on ancient monuments or pilfer scraps of precious carving. These are the Buster Browns of maturer years, too old to be smacked, who knowingly delight in making themselves a nuisance. They have their representatives in every class and walk of life. We could mention members of Parliament, for instance, whose pride it is to bring discredit on the House they belong to, and shrink from no vulgarity if only they can figure in a "scene". We might even refer to certain divines who will still be talking—or writing letters to the "Times"—though nobody marks them. But this scrofulous itch for publicity is a special, and very irritating, malady with which we have no immediate concern.

If ever there was any truth in the saying that the English take their pleasures sadly it has long passed away. They take them noisily, and their high spirits are insufferable. It seems to be the chief object of an excursion party to give annoyance to every quiet body whom they meet on their raucous way. Compare the senseless rollickings of Eastenders on the road to Epping Forest with the cheerful and infectious gaiety of French working-men and their women-kind bound for Versailles! Contrast the beach at Margate or Hunstanton with Dieppe! With our people there appears to be no mean point between glum solemnity and sheer rowdiness. Watch a group of our young men regaling themselves with beer and skittles in the backyard of a public-house—either desperately in earnest or atrociously jocose—and remember the pleasant time you enjoyed in the balcony of a Lombardy inn where the peasants of the neighbourhood were playing an incomprehensible sort of bowls with infinite delight and incredible politeness. Even when they quarrelled they did it prettily—like well-bred gentlemen. Yet our working classes can be equally gay and quite as well behaved if they have once been under some kind of discipline. It is said that the German visitors to Swinemünde, whom we may assume to have started with no violent British prepossession, have, many of them, lost their hearts to our blue-jackets. Jack ashore is not always a miracle of sobriety and discretion, but he knows how to comport himself when he has the honour of his cloth to maintain. It is stated that the "good looks, good humour, and good behaviour" of our sailors broke down the stiffness of the formal German welcome. The private soldier, again, though his morals are not above criticism, does not often make his red coat conspicuous for bad manners. There is a back street not many hundred yards from Buckingham Palace, where on a Saturday night, sometimes, you may witness a really good "scrap" between belated guardsmen and their natural enemies, the men in blue. The rules of the ring are not strictly observed, but the combat is conducted on both sides with perfect courtesy and absolute good humour, so far as those ornaments of chivalry are compatible with one side trying to put handcuffs on the wrists of the others. We are pleased to add that the demeanour of the crowd is generally unexceptionable. It is better than it would be if the same persons were spectators of a horse race. But then they would be on an outing and therefore irresponsible. Here they are at home, and have a standard of their own to live up to.

Here we come to the root of the problem. When an Englishman changes his working coat for holiday attire, he seems to think he may as well shed all the other proprieties. The same perverse superstition runs through all classes, from the decent artisan and the smug clerk, taking their fortnight at the seaside, to the barrister or schoolmaster at an Alpine inn or the plutocrat in his motor-car. Not all of them, but far too many, behave abroad as they would not dream of behaving at home.

The best extant definition of a gentleman is "a man who never gives offence unintentionally", yet what do

we see when we watch the bearing of our countrymen in a foreign place of entertainment—a theatre, gallery, or table d'hôte? The same cultivated and amiable person who in London is studiously considerate towards friends and strangers alike talks when he should be silent, is silent when he should talk, and does not trouble to disguise his supercilious contempt for the people and things that presumably he came to study. It is not that he is stupid or ill-tempered, but he has ceased to feel any inducement to make himself liked or respected. Take the case of the motorists. Not many of them play the "road-hog" in their own neighbourhood. They do not scurry round corners between their home and their station even if they are in a hurry to catch the train for town. They do not discharge noxious vapours when they pass a friend or acquaintance on the road. Yet we find that some of these very persons who have won quite a high character for "considerate driving" about their own homes are summoned, when they are twenty or thirty miles away, for one or another of the worst offences against the courtesies of the road.

We do not say that Englishmen are the only trippers who get themselves disliked in the countries which they honour with their attentions. The lower-class American, with his wife and daughters, may be awarded a discreditable mention. Nor should we say that the German tourist, when he comes as a noun of multitude, is altogether a desirable accession to a quiet party in a Swiss inn. Again, there are points about the French bagman. But these offenders, grievous as they are in their different styles, spring as a rule from a class in which refinement and courtesy are not fairly to be demanded. The American, the German, or the French gentleman in England is even more punctilious than when he is travelling among his own people. We cannot say the same of English people, though of good breeding and education, when they are taking a holiday abroad, and it is painful to add that the women are a trifle worse than the men. The only encouraging fact is that this special form of insular vulgarity seems to be giving way a little. Perhaps we are beginning to be accustomed to foreign ways and differing habits. Perhaps also we feel a little more "at home" than we did when we were so heartily disliked throughout the Continent. There was some excuse for the Englishman being stiff, and suspicious, and unapproachable when every other newspaper that he might pick up would contain some libel on his sovereign or his country. There is no doubt that our character has risen immensely in Continental esteem since we reminded the world that we possessed qualities which might be more useful in this rough-and-tumble world than a pretty talent for shopkeeping. It is the individual Englishman's own fault if he is misunderstood by foreign observers. They are quite ready to judge us on our merits. We shall not be taken for haberdashers unless we behave like them. Haberdashers, by the way, are a specially well-mannered class of tradesmen. They have long outgrown the connotation of their name. Cannot Englishmen do the same?

#### BENDS OF THE RIVER.

THE river seems shut in at every bend,  
But on it flows.  
And life appears to kindle and to end,  
But yet, who knows?

The stream is never bounded by that shore  
Which our eyes view,  
As we draw near, long reaches and still more  
Spread out anew.

So life may prove a rill that always ran  
Eternally,  
Which shall not cease, since never birth began,  
Its mystery.

GEORGE IVES.

## MOTOR TOURING.

## III. PREPARATIONS.

WHETHER the planning of a journey or the journey itself gives the greater pleasure is a matter of temperament; but the many accidents and incidents which may mar the accomplishment are at any rate absent from the anticipation, which is on that account a thing not to be scamped or neglected. There is nothing that lends itself to more agreeable anticipation than a journey by motor-car, and nothing of the same kind for which so many and various proposals can be made; and it is important that these should all be well canvassed before a start is made, so that not only the places which one proposes to visit should be chosen, but also the whole nature and method of the holiday be decided upon.

There are two broad groups into which tours by motor-car can be divided. There is the journey which is accurately planned out beforehand in every particular, such as what places and hotels we shall stop at, what time we shall arrive, and what time depart from them. In this way the whole tour is spread out in imagination beforehand, and one's journeys have the added interest (highly valuable to some minds) of order and punctuality. The pleasure of keeping to a timetable, indeed, smacks too much of slavery to please everyone; and if there is a great, though unholy, pleasure in drawing up at, say, the *Hôtel de l'Univers* at Tours at a quarter-past four on the fifth of the month, there is a corresponding disturbance and distress if, by any misadventure, one should not arrive there until a quarter to five on the sixth. The whole expedition is thus put out of joint; those twenty-four and a-half hours are never recovered, and exist as a dreadful void or debit in the imagination. But they belong to the risks we take when we draw on our pleasures in advance, and must be regarded as belonging to the disadvantages inseparable from the whole vicious system of punctuality.

The other kind of journey, more agreeable to the adventurous mind, is that in which one starts out with the world before one, with no itinerary but that suggested by one's desire of the moment, and no intention but to please oneself. It is better to use this system on a motor tour than on a walking tour, because if by any chance one's whim should lead one into a dreary or unpleasant country, one can soon get out of it again on the motor; whereas in walking one has many disagreeable steps to retrace, and there is nothing more fatiguing than such retractions through a country which does not please. On the other hand, the motor-car has to be considered a little, and as one is dependent on good roads it is as well to practise this vagrant habit with caution, or only in places where one knows that the roads are good. In England, for example, or in a great part of England, it can be adventured on a moderate-sized motor-car with safety and success, because our roads, none of them superlatively good, have yet a fairly high average of efficiency; in Ireland it is simply impossible, because a road in Ireland is either fairly good or shockingly bad; in France, where it is most tempting, it is least safe, because there, once one is off the routes nationales or their immediate tributaries, one gets on to roads which may begin fairly well, but as likely as not finish in some quarry rut or trampled quagmire before a farmhouse. Perhaps the ideal tour for a motor-car is that in which one combines these two methods; in which the chief points of one's journey are decided upon beforehand, and its outlines mapped out, but in which questions of what road we shall go by from place to place, or how long we shall spend in going, are left to the decision and fancy of the moment. Thus one has certain fixed points to which (in case of accident) supplies or spare parts can be sent, and at which, if one wishes it, one can resume contact with the world.

Before setting out the car should be stripped bare, and the whole of the stores, spare parts, &c., which it is proposed to take should be spread out on a long table in the motor-house. Tyres are things upon which one is absolutely dependent, and not less than two new outer covers should be carried, as well as,

say, half a dozen inner tubes; for it is better to keep one's punctured inner tubes to be repaired in the workshop than to attempt repairing them on the road. It is well to carry one spare cover in forks on the step at the driver's right hand; the other, and four of the inner tubes, as well as any spare parts not likely to be wanted, should be carried under the floor of the car, a false bottom being fitted for the purpose. This plan is seldom adopted, yet it has many advantages; and the slight extra height which it gives to the flooring and the back seats is rather an advantage than not. Other spare parts should be bolts and nuts of every size and shape; two spare inlet and two exhaust valves; sparking plugs (six) if the ignition is high-tension, and a complete magneto, if by magneto; a spare battery fully charged, for high-tension ignition; plenty of insulated wire, copper wire, rubber tubing of the same gauge as the copper piping of the water system; a spare water pump; belting for the fan (if belt-driven); in a word, duplicates of all the small and easily detachable parts of the engine and gears. It may sound cumbersome, but it is the only way to feel secure from breakdown. With these precautions, and a small proportion of ordinary luck, there need be no fear that the journey will be interrupted by any misadventure of the car itself.

## WISSANT: A FORGOTTEN PORT.

"*TOUT au plus un village*" Mariette calls it now, or rather "a hamlet astray in a desert of sand". Yet Froissart speaks of it as the "grosse ville de Wissant", and it was clearly, at one time, the favourite port of communication between England and France. It was from Wissant that the Red Prince sailed to snatch the English crown, and it was here that Thomas à Becket landed in flight from Henry's wrath. It was at Wissant that our third Edward disembarked when Philip of Valois summoned him to do homage for Guyenne, and it was hence that S. Louis set out to pay his orisons at Becket's shrine. And that earliest and most portentous sailing of all! Here is the Fort de César, asserting a Roman tradition, even though it have no more personal connection with Cæsar than the so-called "Oliver Cromwell's encampment" on Roundway Down, which Cromwell never saw but which does indicate the scene of an engagement between Royalist and Parliamentary troops. A quiet enough little town it is now, built right up against the sandbanks which line the coast; one long street with a fair hotel and two or three inns, a town hall and a church by way of public buildings, a few fairly good houses, and a considerable number of poor ones scattered right and left amid the sand which seems to be the prevailing characteristic; a place which gives one the impression of being out of the world, as though the centuries had forgotten it. But it must have been known to the Romans, for there are said to be traces of a Roman road to Therouanne, which was a considerable town in Roman days and continued sufficiently important to be the seat of the provincial bishopric till Charles Quint literally effaced it from existence.

It is not until a thousand years after Cæsar's day that we pick up the threads of a more authentic story. Both Kent and Morinia have succumbed to a new invasion. Under the name of Franks on one side of the Channel and of Saxons on the other, Teutonic tribes have overrun the country which we left Cæsar bent on subjecting; while Northmen are doing their best to prevent the evolution of order out of the chaos that followed the final breach of the Roman peace. Wissant emerges into notice in the reign of Louis IV. What had been its fate in the meantime is matter chiefly of surmise. Whether it had been fortified by Charlemagne, like Ambleteuse and Etaples and other ports in the Boulonnais, and ruined by Norman pirates directly his strong hand was removed—certain it seems to be that Louis found it in ruins. Making (A.D. 938) a tour on the coast line, he found Wissant practically abandoned; and decided "to rebuild the Castle and restore the port"—in respect of which we may note that, here, then, evidently has been a castle and that here was

still a port, or what passed as such in those days of small craft: so that an argument might be drawn in favour of continuity if one were found to dispute the historical antiquity of the site.

Feudalism is now developing out of the post-Roman chaos; Boulogne (approximately the ancient Morinia) has been consolidated into a county; and Eustace has married a sister of Edward and Alfred. Nothing more natural, therefore, than that he should go on a visit to England; but it is a little remarkable that he should have set sail from Wissant instead of from his capital. If Cæsar was indifferent to the length of the voyage, degeneracy had evidently set in, and the proximity of Wissant to the Kentish coast had marked it out for favour. Dover seems to have had a fatal attraction for Eustace; for although he was rewarded by William with large grants of land for his share in the Battle of Hastings, we find him shortly afterwards listening to overtures from the men of Kent to join in an attack upon the castle, that entailed another ignominious flight. The Kentish men had become restive, Lambard tells us, under the Norman yoke, and came to an understanding with Eustace that he "should crosse the seas in a nighte by them appointed", when they would join forces and "soudainly assaile and enter it". But the watch unfortunately descried them, and the Commandant prepared a counterstroke. So that, while they were trying to scale the walls, the garrison made a "soudaine salie" and set upon them with such fury that they compelled Eustace with a few others to "return to his shippe, the rest of his companie being eyther slayne by the sworde, destroyed by fall from the clyffs, or devoured by the sea". It was from Wissant again, curiously enough, that William Rufus appears to have sailed, after his father's death, to seize the English throne; and we find this same Eustace courting more trouble on English soil as a partisan of Robert Courthose, whose claims he and others felt impelled to sustain. He only succeeded, however, as the school-books tell us, in getting defeated at Rochester, and seems then to have been satisfied to pass the rest of his life in peace.

Was it frank good feeling, or good policy, which led Henry Fitz-Empress to act as guardian to the orphan son whom Stephen left as his successor in the county? The trust seems, at any rate, to have been loyally executed and to have brought its reward; for when Henry undertook (A.D. 1159) to maintain that Toulouse was an integral portion of Aquitaine, we find Count William accompanying him as an ally. And the army lands at Wissant. William's death during the campaign discloses the fact that his sister Mahaut (Maud) is Abbess of Rumsey, from whence she is carried off by Matthew of Alsace, who thus acquires the county of Boulogne; but he had to pass through much tribulation on account of this ecclesiastical crime. One of the foremost to denounce the rape was Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury; and when, a few years later (A.D. 1164), he was forced to flee from the anger of Henry, it was at Wissant that he landed. Nor is it surprising that Matthew, smarting still under ecclesiastical censure, lent himself heart and soul to Henry's request that he would hunt down the fugitive. But Thomas succeeded in reaching the Court of France. And when, six years after, he ventured to return to his province, it was at Wissant that he embarked.

Wissant appears again during the disputes between Henry III. and Simon de Montfort, which were referred, curiously enough, to the arbitration of Louis IX. After the Grand Assembly at Boulogne, where the question was debated, and at Amiens where S. Louis gave his decision in favour of Henry, the latter embarked (A.D. 1264) at Wissant on his return journey. And when S. Louis undertook to pay his orisons at the shrine of Thomas à Becket, as a preliminary to the crusade which was to cost him his life, it was from Wissant (1268) that he set out on the excursion. It was at Wissant again that Edward II. embarked for England, after celebrating (A.D. 1308), in the Cathedral of Boulogne, his marriage with Isabella, daughter of Philip-le-bel, and after doing that homage for the counties of Guyenne and Ponthieu which his son and successor was dilatory to render.

"About a year after the coronation of King Philip of

Valois (1328), when all the barons and tenants of the Crown had done him homage except the young King Edward III. of England . . . the King, by the advice of his Council, sent to him the Lord of Ancenis, the Lord of Beausault, and two clerks learned in the laws. . . . The four left Paris and travelled on to Wissant, where they embarked, passed over and landed at Dover." So Froissart describes the outset of the Mission which was to invite Edward III. to copy his father's example. And it was at Wissant that Edward landed with the Bishops of London, Lincoln, and Winchester, the Earls of Derby, Salisbury, Warwick, and Hereford, besides other knights and nobles, and an escort of 1,000 horse, on his way to Amiens, in answer to the summons.

But with this great function the glory of Wissant reached its zenith. Seventeen years were yet to elapse before Edward turned the tables at Crecy; but within seven days after the battle he had taken the "grosse ville" de Wissant, and commenced the siege which was to give him, as he himself boasted, the keys of France and to substitute Calais for Wissant as the port of communication between the two countries.

Wissant has natural advantages in the shape of a fine beach and lofty neighbouring downs that should commend it to the class of visitors who include exercise in their programme. At present the nearest station is Pihem, which is equidistant between Wissant and Guisnes. The road leads directly past the Fort de César, which stands within half a mile or so of the beach, in the mouth of the broad valley that abuts upon the town. This so-called fort is a conical hill surrounded by a deep moat. The top has been brought under cultivation; but the plough has not yet effaced the evidences of fortification, the vallum having been merely shovelled inward sufficiently to convert the surface into a pond-like hollow. There was an exit, evidently, towards the town, sloping on to a sort of esplanade which fits the hill like a crescent-shaped salad plate. The whole summit, in fact, which is about two hundred yards in circumference, may remind one of an oyster-shell with the heel looking west—towards a gap in the line of sand-hills which marks the outlet of the little stream that may have supplied water to the garrison; though it is perfectly certain, from the evidence of space and measurement, that this can never have comprised a twentieth part of the three legions and 2,000 horse which Cæsar left with Labienus, ut portus tueretur—that he might guard the port and look generally after things during his absence. The stream itself runs conveniently past the left flank of the fort, at a distance of some 200 yards, rushes sharply through the town, and sprawls into the sea through an opening in the sand-hills which have altered, in all probability, the whole nature and appearance of the port since Cæsar's day. Two or three yawls, five-and-twenty or thirty feet long, resting on the shallow bed up which they have been dragged or floated by a high tide, are the only representatives, now, of the ships—their own probably not much larger—in which William Rufus and Thomas à Becket and Saint Louis and the Edwards and their suites, and all the many warriors and pilgrims and chepemen and clerks were wont to make the uncomfortable journey, from the time when Britons sent help to their brethren in their struggles against Rome to the day when the conquest of Calais, by islanders of another race, changed the way and left Wissant to solitude and sand.

#### BIRD LIFE ON THE POLDERS.

##### AVOCETS AND SPOONBILLS.

IN spite of his superior size the spoonbill is not left quite unmolested as he stalks upon the "wide-watered shore"—not, at least, during this "childing" season of the year, when maternal solicitude is ever on the watch to take alarm. In the avocet, especially, this principle, with its attendant pugnacity, is extremely active, insomuch that an ostrich, probably, could not walk for long unchallenged by it on this ground "here in Holland". At any rate a spoonbill cannot. Let but a white colossus of them all—or, for the matter of that, a whole regiment—come within a certain prohibited

distance of the nursery of any of these birds, and scenes, unworthy of, though somewhat resembling, "the dignity of the House", will take place. Since, however, the aforesaid nursery is anywhere at all near where any young avocet is, and since young avocets are many, and run fast, and have a great aptitude for straying, it is by no means an easy thing, either for a spoonbill or any other bird, to satisfy parental scruples in this respect. The result is a continual state of unrest, with bickerings and sudden outbreaks. Redshanks and oyster-catchers are being, all day long, driven away from any particular place where they may happen to be, first by one irate mother and then another, whilst, as a variant from these foreign broils, internecine warfare and jealousy frequently break out amongst the disturbers of the peace themselves. It is not long, therefore, before a pair of spoonbills—for usually they go in pairs—advancing steadily through the waters of their habitual hunting-grounds, find themselves within that line which an avocet must draw somewhere—or rather everywhere—when a stranger approaches her ubiquitous family circle. The particular bird whose principles now require asserting immediately approaches, and, stepping side by side with the larger of the two intruders—a most amusing sight—springs suddenly up at it, and continues so to act with great perseverance, shifting her attack from one to the other, as occasion serves, to the annoyance and confusion of the stately couple. They continue to feed, however, with steady persistence, interrupted by an occasional jump, hiss or run, till at last they pass beyond the toleration-line, as one may term it, which bounds this region of parental anxiety. For a little, then, they may proceed unmolested, but soon enter another danger-zone, to be attacked, this time, perhaps, by a pair of avocets, and with even greater animosity. At length the more persecuted of the two—the male, generally, whose greater size seems to arouse a correspondingly greater degree of hostility—rises and wings his way far over the wide-stretching waters. His affectionate partner soon follows, and, far off, in some remote solitude, they both find a haven of rest.

It must not be thought, however, that fear has had anything to do with such a flight as this. Indeed it would be strange if this were so, considering the great disparity of size between the two birds, and accordingly, though spoonbills, when attacked in this way, are obviously very much bothered, and often driven about at a run, it is easy to see that they look upon their puny antagonists more as an intolerable nuisance than a real menace either to their safety or dignity. They seem to know that their own size is here against them, that their larger movements and more ponderous strength are powerless against the sudden turns and quick agility of pigmies to whom their great bodies are as a shelter and hiding place, out of the cover of which they may, at any moment, dart, and fly up at them. Thus, between the anticipation of annoyance and the annoyance itself, they are thrown into a state of mingled anger and apprehension which reminds one of nothing so much as an elephant—vide the accounts of Gordon Cumming and others—attacked by a crowd of small dogs. Not that in these lesser persecutions there is ever a crowd of avocets; but imagination, struck by the general resemblance, adds a few touches to aid in it. For, like the elephant, though no doubt in a lesser degree, the spoonbill seems sometimes half-maddened with rage, and turning suddenly, in the midst of being driven hither and thither, makes violent rushes at the insignificant disturber of its peace. The latter in such cases, of course, makes a hasty retreat, and is chased about by the incensed giant, who utters loud hisses from widely-gaping jaws. Such bursts of fury, however, do not last long, and are succeeded, again, by the more permanent longing to get away from the horrid annoyance. Still, a pair of spoonbills, in these distressing circumstances, will often show a great deal of dogged determination, and though grievously worried and harried, refuse altogether to take flight, but keep steadily on in their chosen path, and feed in the teeth of persecution. But except the avocet, no other bird, as far as I have seen, molests the spoonbill, not, at least, to the extent of making a dead set at him, though

I have no doubt that many would be prepared to act with spirit, were a compelling occasion to arise. All birds, in fact, become capable of almost anything with each other, when they conceive their young to be in danger, and it is seldom then that the party assailed makes any retaliation. This tameness, indeed, has little or nothing to do with the cause of the attack, but rather comes under the head of a general principle, which I have seen illustrated in a variety of ways, viz. that the angrier a bird is, the more likely is it to be given way to by one whose feelings for the moment are not quite on a level with its own. The full cup is superior to the empty one, which, to meet it on an equality must hold as good liquor itself. Nor does this happen without some equally adequate cause—appetite, love, jealousy, &c.—it must be filled from the depths of nature. This law, which governs most animals, not excluding man, with whom, as Kent says, "Anger has a privilege", gives rise in the feathered world to many bizarre occurrences—Goliath flying before David, and David shortly afterwards outed by as very a dwarf. The very bird we have been considering, valiant as we have seen him to be, will strike sail at once to the little Kentish plover, should it happen to get entangled with the latter's family—a thing which may easily happen, for the tiny chicks of this species run with a rapidity hardly excelled when they reach maturity, and whomsoever they may overtake in their course, is considered guilty by the parents. As a rule, however, the avocet is quite the tyrant of the shore, and though the oyster-catcher—himself a fighter—will sometimes lose patience and stand up against him with success, as a rule he prefers to give way to an adversary who, even when worsted, will follow him about, and attack or half-attack him, again and again, in the most persistent manner. Yet, with his slender build and elegant poise, no bird seems less intended to play the part of a bully than this one. Till one knows him, at any rate, he looks far more the dancing-master than the swash-buckler, and, in especial, the long, slender bill, with its delicate, upward curve, little suggests an effective weapon. Nor is it ever, I believe, used as one, but only—except for a few subsidiary peaceful purposes—to procure food, in the performance of which important office it is a highly specialised implement. As remarked before, the avocet, when feeding in the water, constantly moves its head and neck from side to side, as does the spoonbill in a more scythe-like and mightier manner. When, however, the bird walks along the foreshore, it often lays the side of the bill on the ground with each sweep, not with the purpose of wiping or rubbing it—though this may be an added enjoyment—but evidently getting something each time. It feeds, in fact, in this way. Now were the beak straight, and used like this, its point would be liable to pierce the surface of the ground and thus cause delay, and, did it curve downwards, this particular use of it might be difficult, or perhaps impossible. Tip-tilted as it is, however, it glides smoothly, each time, over mud or sand, for, close as the bird may lay its head to the ground, the curved point of the bill seems always to rise a little above it, and in any slight forward movement slides along like the prow of a boat. This, I am inclined to think, is the consideration that has directed the shape of the bill, which would also be adapted to the threading of the long, hair-like seaweed with which the water is full, as well as to a straight-forward and upward scoop in the mud at its bottom, or along the shore, which the bird frequently makes.

EDMUND SELOUS.

#### BRIDGE.

THE PLAY OF THE THIRD HAND IN A NO TRUMP GAME.

THE application of the "Eleven Rule", which was fully explained in our article of June 24, is the one bright guiding star for the play of the third hand. For the benefit of any of our readers who may not have read, or if they did read may not have attached sufficient importance to, the article in our issue of June 24, we will here repeat the conditions of the "Eleven Rule". When the original leader has led his fourth-

best card, if the value of the pips on the card led is deducted from eleven, the remainder will be the number of cards of that suit, higher than the one led, which are not in the leader's hand. The correct application of this rule is frequently of inestimable value to the player of the third hand. There are occasions when the position of every card in the suit can be accurately gauged, such as when the leader opens with the 7 of a suit, the dummy puts down queen, 8 and another, and the third hand holds ace, 10, and a small one. In this case it is a certainty that the dealer cannot beat the 7, as there are only four cards against the leader, higher than the one led, and they are all visible to the third player. Therefore, if the second hand covers the 7 with the 8, the third player puts on his 10, leads out the ace and a small one, and every trick in the suit is assured. This is an extreme case, which does not often happen. Much more frequently the third hand is able to judge that the dealer has one card and one only higher than the card led, and he then has to determine what that one card is likely to be. This is by far the most common form of the application of the "Eleven Rule". Say that the leader opens with a 6, which shows five higher cards against him in the suit, the dummy puts down knave, 7, 4, and the third hand holds king, 9, 2. The dealer is marked with one card only higher than the 6, and that card may be ace, queen, 10, or 8. If the declaration of No Trumps has been made by the dealer, the probability is that that one card is the ace, or at any rate the queen, in neither of which cases can anything be gained by putting on the king as third hand. There is, of course, the possibility of the dealer having chanced that suit entirely, and of the original leader holding both ace and queen; but bridge is a game of probabilities, not possibilities, and the third hand has to consider the probable placings of the cards, not possible but improbable combinations. In this case he should play his 9 on the 6 led, whether the second hand covers or not, and, if his 9 is allowed to win, lead the king at once, so as to clear his partner's suit and to avoid blocking him. If the dealer holds ace and two small ones, he will probably allow the king also to win. The third one should then be led in the hope that the leader may have a card of re-entry to bring in his thirteenth.

Let us take another case, which is by no means uncommon. Suppose the leader opens with a 5, the dummy puts down knave, 7, 3, and the third hand holds queen, 9, 6. According to the Eleven Rule the dealer can have one card only higher than the 5, and, if the declaration has been made by him, there is a very strong presumption that his one card is either the ace or the king. If the third hand puts on the queen, it is won by the ace or king in the dealer's hand, and the knave in dummy remains good for the third trick. If, on the other hand, the third player presumes that the dealer's one card is either the ace or king, and finesses his 9, every subsequent trick in the suit is assured, should his presumption prove correct. This is a good instance of the sort of chances that must be taken, and of the kind of finesses that should be made by the third player, and this is where the Eleven Rule helps him so much. It may happen that his partner has led from an ace, king suit, in which case several tricks, and probably the game, will be lost by his finesse; but the balance of probability is strongly against it, and it is foolish to play for one possible combination of the cards, when there are many other combinations which are distinctly more probable.

The value of the card led, if it is a moderately high one, affords great information to an observant player of the third hand. Suppose the leader opens with the 7 of a suit, the dummy puts down the 8 and the 3, and the third hand holds king, 9, 4. Here again, the dealer is marked with only one card higher than the 7, but in this case the value of that one card is absolutely certain. The four missing higher cards are ace, queen, knave, and 10, and it is certain that the original leader cannot hold either ace, queen, knave, or ace, knave, 10, or queen, knave, 10, as he would have led one of the honours from either combination; therefore the cards in his hand must be ace, queen, 10, leaving the knave marked with the dealer. This should be as plainly apparent to the third player as though he had seen the

knave in the dealer's hand. In this particular case the information is not of much use to him, as he would of course play the king in any case, there being nothing of value in the dummy hand, but it is given as an instance of being able to place the high cards of the suit led with the assistance of the Eleven Rule.

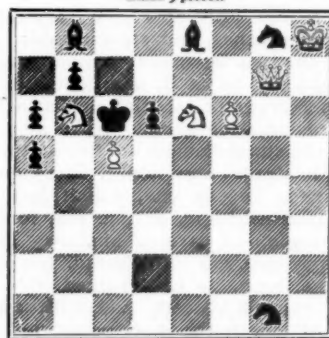
The dealer is acknowledged to have quite a disproportionate advantage in the play of the two hands when there are No Trumps, but the Eleven Rule is a strong weapon of defence against him in the hands of skilful adversaries, and the correct application of it will to some extent minimise the great advantages which he undoubtedly possesses.

\* \* The weekly articles on Bridge will be discontinued until October. They will be resumed in the issue for 7 October, and will appear weekly thenceforth.

### CHESS.

#### PROBLEM 38. By R. ADAM.

Black 9 pieces.



White 6 pieces.

White to mate in three moves.

Solutions to above will be duly acknowledged.

KEY TO PROBLEM 37: 1. K-Kt1. If K-Kt5, 2. Q-R3 ch, &c.

The following game was played in the Championship Tournament at Southport. It is remarkable for the tenacious play of white, who all through has a difficult game but wins by inducing black to make an unsound combination.

#### QUEEN'S GAMBIT DECLINED.

White	Black	White	Black
V. L.	G. E. H.	V. L.	G. E. H.
Wahlruch	Bellingham	Wahlruch	Bellingham
1. P-Q4	P-Q4	4. Kt-KB3	P-QB3
2. P-QB4	P-K3	5. P-K3	...
3. Kt-QB3	P-KB4		

If white plays P×P then KP retakes with a freer game. As white must defend the pawn, this is the only feasible move, though the queen's bishop has very little mobility. Having neglected to play B-B4 on the fourth move white has a difficult game in consequence. He can never play P-K4 because then the queen's pawn becomes isolated and must fall.

5. ...	Kt-Q2	7. B-Q3	...
6. P×P	KP×P		

As with Kt-Q2 black has obstructed his QB, white immediately attacks the KBP. The idea, if possible, is to compel black to play either Kt-Kt3, where it would be out of play, or QKt-B3, where it would interfere with the development of the black king's pieces.

7. ...	Q-B3	12. Kt-R4	Kt-B3
8. Kt-K2	B-Q3	13. Castles Q	Kt-K5
9. B-Q2	Kt-R3	14. QR-B1	B-Q2
10. Q-B2	Castles	15. P-B3	Kt×B
11. P-KKt3	Q-K2	16. K×Kt	...

White conceives the idea that the king will be safer on the king's side, and prepares to get there.

16. ...	P-QB4	23. K-B2	P-KKt4
17. Kt-B3	B-K3	24. P-KR3	P-B5
18. R-K1	P-QB5	25. KP×P	P×P
19. B-K2	P-R3	26. P-Kt4	Q-Kt2
20. Kt-Kt2	B-Kt5	27. Q-Q2	B-K2
21. R-QB1	K-R1	28. QR-Q1	B-Kt4
22. K-K1	QR-K1		

Black's idea is if possible to play B×KtP followed by Kt×P ch and Kt-K6 or R-K6 according to circum-

stances. It will be observed that black cannot capture with the bishop's pawn because of the reply P-B6 attacking two pieces and the discovered attack on the queen.

29. P×KR4 B-Q1

30. P-Kt5 B×P

White's only hope is in rushing his opponent or offering various opportunities for sacrificing something. This sacrifice gives away a good deal of the advantage in position. Kt-Kt5 ch would have been overwhelming. If, then, 31 P×Kt P-B6, 32 B×P, B×P and wins.

31. P×B Q×P

33. K-B1 Kt-Kt5

32. QR-Kt1 Q-Kt6 ch

34. P×Kt P-B6

This is the move black relied on when he commenced sacrificing, showing how a profound idea can be unsound.

35. R×P ch K×R

37. Q-R6 ch . . .

36. R-R1 ch K-Kt2

and mates in four moves as follows :

37. . . . K-B2

39. R-R6 ch K-Kt4

38. Q-R7 ch K-B3

40. Q-Kt6 mate

## CORRESPONDENCE.

### EARLY ETON SCHOOL LISTS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

5 New Street Square, E.C., 30 August, 1905.

SIR,—May I ask through your columns if anyone who knows of the existence of Eton School Lists prior to 1791 will kindly communicate with me? Eton is unfortunately much behindhand in the possession of registers of her sons. There are no registers, no printed school lists, and no entry books (except for the short but famous period of Dr. Barnard's rule 1754-65) before 1791. Eton compares badly in this respect with Winchester which possesses an unbroken series of Rolls from 1723, not to mention forty-four earlier ones, with Westminster which has a register from 1764, and with Rugby whose records go back to 1675. Considering the reputation that Eton possessed during most of the eighteenth century, it is very desirable that some annotated register of her sons should be published. But before any such commentary can be made, it is necessary to have some text to go upon, and it is the text that I am at present trying to obtain. As Eton did not begin to print her school lists till 1791, it follows that all earlier lists are in MS. and those that survive are usually to be found among the archives of country houses, having (from the handwriting) evidently been written by the boys themselves and sent home for the edification of their parents.

The late Mr. Chetwynd Stapylton, to whom Eton owes the annotation of her school-lists from 1791 to 1892, was the first person to make a collection of these MS. lists on any considerable scale, and by 1895, when he gave his collection of transcripts to the College Library, had obtained copies of lists for the following years, viz. 1678, 1718, 1725, 1732, 1742, 1745, 1752, 1754, 1757, 1762-1771, 1773, 1775, 1778-83, 1785 and 1788-9. During the last three years (since I began collecting) I have been able to add lists for the following dates: 1706, 1707, 1728, 1747, 1753, 1756, 1758-61, 1776-7, 1784, 1786, 1787 and 1790. The present position therefore is that from 1752 until 1790 an almost complete series exists, the only gaps being for the years 1772 and 1774. For 1774 I have never yet heard of a list, but the case is different with 1772, as a roll of that year, belonging to Lord Darnley, is mentioned in the catalogue as one of the items at the Eton Loan Exhibition of 1891. Though at present it cannot be found, there is hope that it may some day come to light again.

It is more particularly with regard to the period before 1752 that I would ask for the loan of lists. Only ten are known of at the present moment, and it would be discouraging to think that it has taken some sixty years to bring these ten together, were it not for the fact that four of them have been heard of in the last two years.

The search for lists is not without its fascination and even has its rewards at times. Thus in 1888 Mr. Sterry came across a list for 1742 bound up in the Bodleian

copy of "Alumni Etonenses". The discovery of the list for 1706 was even more interesting. It is in the British Museum (Add. MSS. 7025 f. 135) and had always been taken for a Westminster School List for the not unnatural reason that it is the first of half-a-dozen lists all bound together, of which the remaining five undoubtedly belong to Westminster. But on looking at it recently, under the belief that it was a Westminster list, I was struck by the number of names in it that seemed Eton names. At first I supposed this to be merely an illustration of the fact that Westminster was then the more fashionable school of the two, and therefore the home of many families that have since migrated to Eton. But the more I looked at it the more I began to wonder whether it was not after all an Eton list, till finally I became convinced that it was. To prove it so might have been difficult had there not existed the list of 1707; and a comparison of the two placed the matter beyond doubt. It is not a little curious that the Eton List of 1707 was in a similar way assumed to be a Winchester Roll. It is described in the Third Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, p. 276 as "1707 Narrow paper roll, 8 or 10 feet long, Names of persons in Winchester School". The late Mr. Holgate, however, when editing the Winchester Long Rolls, discovered its true nature. But Mr. Holgate made a curious slip with regard to the Eton List of 1706. Assuming it (naturally enough) to be a Westminster List he writes "At the end is written 'a copy of this list sent to Westminster by Mr. Henry Drax 1706'" (Winchester Long Rolls 1653-1721 App. III. p. 196) whereas what is really written is "a copy of this list sent to West by Mr. Henry Drax". Who or what West was is unknown, but now that the list is known to belong to Eton, there is no particular reason to suppose the word to be a contraction for Westminster.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,  
R. A. AUSTEN LEIGH.

### EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Edinburgh, 29 August, 1905.

SIR,—I have just read a noteworthy and instructive article in your issue of 26 August on the subject of "Education in Ireland". The writer evidently understands his subject, and has the facts and figures clearly before him.

It has occurred to me that a few remarks upon Scotch education may not be out of place in the same connection, as covering the same ground, though obviously rather by way of contrast than of analogy. I do not seek to refer to the Government's Scotch Education Bill, a measure which, though it failed to pass, is bound to reappear in some form or other before long. I may only say that it was received by all parties with favour, if not with enthusiasm, as being conducive to peace and harmony, in which respect it may be contrasted with the only Government Scotch measure which did succeed in passing, which seems calculated to be, as a remedy for the ecclesiastical strife which has come to exist in Scotland, worse than the disease.

The chief reason for the Bill is the general agreement that a remedy must be found for the unsatisfactory conditions which have come to light since Lord Young's Act a generation ago disturbed the quiet flow of the Scotch educational system—a system which, when judged by its results, may be justly regarded as not unworthy of the high reputation which it had generally acquired. Accordingly there has been brought into existence in every parish in Scotland small bodies, popularly elected, with a membership of five upwards, whose sole duty is to regulate the educational affairs of the community. It is obvious that this would produce a state of affairs in which, where not made a means of keeping up some local bitterness, the result would tend to stagnation; and such in fact has been the case, save where some local landowner, or perhaps the parish minister, has taken a general charge of affairs; this giving, on the whole, the most satisfactory results.

Nor do things differ much as regards the present

state of matters in the larger towns. Take, for example, the annals of the Edinburgh School Board. I have not the figures with me, but I can state that while at the first election something like two-thirds of the total electorate voted, the proportion since of those who took the trouble to vote slowly dwindled down, until at the last triennial election less than 20 per cent. deigned to record their votes!

Again, as to the small schools, in which the teachers draw small salaries, there is of necessity much the same condition of things as the writer of your article on Ireland describes in that country. For instance, within half a mile of where I write there is a small school; it stands by itself, without even an adjacent hamlet, being merely a centre for a sparsely populated country district. The attendance has no doubt fluctuated from time to time, but at present I believe it stands at twelve children, all told. How can the School Board supply a teacher, with the requisite certificates, to meet such a case as this?

Indeed, whatever be the shortcomings of the school boards, in one respect at least they are, I think, "more sinned against than sinning". I refer to the action of the central Scottish educational authority, which has, in my view, demanded a standard of results which in many cases is a quite impracticable one. The burdens on the ratepayers, along with the difficulties which the school boards have to face in securing teachers qualified to bring their pupils up to that standard, are as nothing to these gentlemen in high places; they alone are the judges, apart from all the particular circumstances of the case; and a certain distinguished gentleman, having retired from his labours in endeavouring to get a pint pot to contain a quart, is now a candidate for, and will shortly no doubt occupy, a Scotch university seat, where he may be able to continue his efforts towards ideal educational perfection, quite apart from the wants and capacities of the country.

These somewhat desultory remarks may perhaps draw attention to educational difficulties which demand solution in that one of the three kingdoms in which the virtue of patience is most strongly exemplified.

I am, your obedient servant,

W. S. D.

#### "THE STORY OF JUANA OF CASTILE."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Netherwood, Godalming, Surrey.

SIR,—I notice that in your review of Mr. Harry Tighe's "Queen of Unrest" you do full justice to his faults of style; but you have spared his treatment of history, which is usually slipshod. Surely popularised history should of all things be accurate in fact. It is surprising that you do not expose Mr. Tighe's blunders.

Seldom for instance have three or four pages contained a more varied collection of blunders than pp. 215-218. The extraordinary spelling of names of places, such as Placenia for Placentia, Madrigalejo for Madrigalejo one may perhaps excuse, but the astounding errors with regard to the admitted facts of history are inexcusable.

Talking of Ferdinand, the Catholic King, the author tells us on p. 216, "In his last moments he seems to have been troubled over the future of his favourite nephew, Ferdinand, whom he wished to place in some important position". The Infante Ferdinand, brother of Charles (later Charles V.) and son of Juana of Castile, was the grandson of the Catholic King, who in his last moments was dissuaded from placing him "in some important position". King Ferdinand, jealous of Charles, had drawn up a will while at Burgos leaving the Regency of Castile and Aragon and the Grand-masterships of the three great military orders to the Infante Ferdinand. This will the King was persuaded to destroy by the influence of certain Councillors, while he was at Madrigalejo on the point of death; had he not destroyed it Spain would have been torn with civil war, and probably Ferdinand would have usurped and held his elder brother's sceptre. "Some important position" seems a somewhat vague phrase to describe a position of such vast importance. Can the author have been ignorant of so striking a piece of history?

Ximenes, we are told on the same page, dismissed a governor "who had dared to use her [Juana] brutally":

this is a reproduction of a mistake of Bergenroth, which brought upon him the anathema of numerous savants. The phrase referred to "dar cuerda" does not mean to "torture" or to "use brutally", but to "humour". Juana's governor, Mosen Ferrer, was dismissed because he had taken no steps to cure the queen of her madness, although certain persons had volunteered to cure her by exorcising the evil spirits, with which she was possessed.

"A rapidly-spreading report of the sanity of the Queen, only confined, it was whispered, for the advancement of political schemes", is said to have been one of the difficulties that beset the path of Ximenes during his Regency of Castile 1516-1517. Among all the difficulties of which Ximenes complains in his numerous letters, the question of Juana's sanity is not mentioned. At the beginning of his Regency he put Juana into safe keeping, and it is not till the time of the "Comunidades" after Ximenes' death that Juana's madness is seriously doubted.

The most extraordinary statement of all is that Ximenes met Charles on the coast of the Asturias. The author knows all about this meeting. "Ximenes found Charles a delicate, diffident youth of seventeen. . . . Towards the prelate the young king was scrupulously polite and almost effusive in thanking him for his services. But it was merely the rind hiding the subsequent request that he would choose some congenial spot and there take the rest necessary to his health and his advanced years." Unfortunately Charles and Ximenes did not meet; surely the ingratitude of Charles and the death of Ximenes are well known to every reader of Prescott's "Ferdinand and Isabella", which by the way is given as one of the chief authorities of this book. Perhaps Mr. Tighe doubts Prescott's accuracy; if so, let him turn to Peter Martyr (another of his authorities), to the letters of Ximenes' secretaries, the Annals of Carvajal, or any of the biographers of Ximenes. Curiously enough on page 120 we have a description of the rise of Ximenes, which is simply paraphrased from Prescott, though even here the author cannot copy accurately: for Ximenes' birthplace Tordelaguna is scarcely to be recognised as Tordelajura. So hurried was the compilation of this book that the author apparently had not time to read one of his principal authorities to the end. I am, yours obediently,

H. WARNER ALLEN.

#### THE SWASTIKA CROSS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

London, 30 August, 1905

SIR,—Your correspondent in the current issue of the Review has evidently not referred to the book itself, my "Lhasa and its Mysteries". The subject is described in more detail in my "Buddhism of Tibet", pp. 30, 287, 389, &c. I have frequently met with the unorthodox form of this cross on Taoist images in China, also on Jain sculptures in India. I am, &c.,

L. A. WADDELL.

#### PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND READING.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Richmond Surrey 30 August, 1905.

SIR,—In your article on the above it seems to me you come to the crux of the whole matter in the concluding lines when you say "To those of us who feel that the love of books is almost a moral influence the maelstrom of the circulating libraries brings a kind of mental nausea."

The love of books (strange as it may seem) is what is sadly lacking in the readers of the present age. Our forefathers (such as could read) even if (as with dear old John Ridd) they had but the Bible and Shakespeare for their libraries were greater lovers of books than most of the omnivorous readers of to-day. But the love of books, if it be not born in us or implanted by some enthusiastic lover of books (be it parent, school teacher, or other), is little likely to be come at by the unrestrained and indiscriminating use of public libraries.

Yours, &c.,

ARTHUR G. ATKINSON.

## REVIEWS.

## "THE NOBLE SAVAGE."

"The Masai: their Language and Folk-lore. By A. C. Hollis. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1905. 14s. net.

IN an age when civilisation is claimed as the unique invention of Europe it is particularly instructive to study the manners and customs of less enlightened people than ourselves. The West may pity the East for its ignorance, but on the other hand the natives of Africa and Asia marvel at our administrative madness. They obey the governor, commissioner or whoever he may be, but as for appreciating the advantages of our rule, or willingly adapting themselves to the new order of things, nothing is further from their thoughts or inclinations. But the European Juggernaut stops at nothing: once started it drives roughshod over native susceptibilities, and as the plough is followed by the cultivator, so do we scatter the seed of civilisation hoping for a European harvest. That the process is slow matters little: the mill grinds surely and thus we fondly believe that in time all that is reaped will be in accordance with Western tastes. The consummation may be delayed for some hundreds of years; but the kingdom is in course of construction, the European fashion is unflaggingly advertised. Thus the anthropologist, the etymologist and the man of science will alike find Mr. Hollis' book of the greatest interest: we can only hope that his efforts will not cease, but that other African tribes will receive their deserving share of investigation.

If one turns to the map of Africa, the home of the Masai is easily discovered. Starting from the Equator where it passes through British and German East Africa, the territory 6° South may for all practical purposes be designated as Masailand. Originally of the most aggressive tendencies the tribe waged war on all their neighbours with the sole object of collecting women and cattle. With a bold defiance of sophisticated prejudice, then as to-day, they rejected all clothing. Armed with their 7-foot spear and huge hide shield they ran riot through the land seeking whom they might devour. In course of ages the spirit of adventure became less keen, with the result that the tribe developed an increasing section of agriculturists who remain to this day averse from warlike expeditions of any kind. It is true that they are mostly old men, unfit for daring enterprise; but owing to the repeated reprimands of government officials as also to European chastisement, the Masai are far less aggressive, their manners more amicable, than they were. Still, deep down in their hearts, the embers of war smoulder, so that to-day it behoves the British Government to be scrupulously careful in its dealings with the Masai lest these latent sparks should revive a formidable flame.

Clearly distinguished by their language, customs and appearance from the Bantu races, the Masai are probably Nilotic by origin. The classification is certainly vague, but it is doubtful, by the light of present data, whether they can be assigned to a more exact classification. Certainly they possess most of the peculiarities common to the Nile tribes. Tall and exceedingly well-made men, with good manners and, in many instances, features that are almost Caucasic, the Masai is a gentleman savage. They possess a rough form of military organisation and, further, like all Nilotic peoples, dispense with dress, and indulge very generally in the extraordinary habit of resting for hours together on one leg. Their origin however like that of most African tribes must be taken very much on speculation. A study of their proverbs, as translated by Mr. Hollis, "The zebra cannot change his stripes" "Do not show the hawk your bow or he will fly away" and many others have a decidedly Oriental colour about them; nevertheless he must be a bold man who argues with Herr Merker that the Masai are of the ancient Hebrew stock. It is undoubtedly true that this interesting people do possess traditions strangely analogous to the Biblical story of the Creation and the Flood, and further profess and practise many of the precepts of the Decalogue. For instance if one listens to the Masai account of the greatest cataclysm in the history

of their tribe, the plague, one is strangely reminded of the story of the Deluge with its devastating results, for the plague in question, which is a fundamental part of Masai primitive history, practically left but one family alive who managed to save a few cattle. Further, the Masai god N'gai, is the same implacable being as set forth in some parts of the Old Testament: revenge not love is his principal attribute and every opportunity is seized upon to assuage his wrath.

But perhaps the most extraordinary feature of Masai theology, if one may here use the word, is their belief in the medicine-man, whose great influence is derived from a supposed power of prophecy and divination. The original prototype was a personage whose name is even to-day hallowed by the Masai and was found, many generations ago, seated peacefully on the top of Mount Ngong. Of heavenly parentage, possessed of divine authority, this mysterious individual instituted and endowed the Kidongi family with his subtle attributes, with the result that his "apostles" to-day are regarded by the Masai much in the light of a Pope.

When all is said and done, what is to be the administrative attitude of the British Government towards the Masai? This is the all-absorbing problem of the day in East Africa. The Uganda Railway which starts from the coast town of Mombassa runs through the very heart of their hunting-ground to a terminus on Lake Victoria. Thus we have a tribe, the most intractable in this part of Africa, athwart our line of communication. Warlike, brave, imbued with fanatical practices revolting to civilisation, they constitute an ever-present and serious source of danger to peace and commerce. So far, the great question has been faced by the home government tentatively, nothing more, a "patch" arrangement as it were, as unstatesmanlike as it is precarious. There are two alternative methods of treatment; either we may leave them undisturbed in their territorial home and endeavour to impress our civilisation upon them, or else they should be compelled to go further afield. The former, if possible, would be the more advantageous policy; the latter undoubtedly the safer. There has been a great outcry lately in East Africa, which resulted in the resignation of a Commissioner, against this suggestion of partial expatriation; a great deal was said about Masai patriotism and the serious results that would inevitably follow any interference with their territorial boundaries. As a matter of fact they live for "cattle" not for "acres", and were the Government to decide that their removal from European contact was necessary, there is not a Masai that would not gladly sell his land-rights for an equivalent in stock. Sentimentality however has so far won the day; the Masai have been left undisturbed; but "sentimentality" here leads to inevitable extinction, whereas "expatriation" with an endeavour to proselytise, would perpetuate a race than which no finer exists in Central Africa.

Mr. Hollis' grammatical treatise is a study in itself; indeed, had he made it more exhaustive he might with advantage have issued the "folklore" in a separate volume. The book is worthy of the greatest attention and we strongly advise every official in the East African Protectorate to make a point of profiting by Mr. Hollis' information, as also the anthropologist in search of fresh fields of interest.

## PAUL I AND MARIE FEODOROWNA.

"A Mother of Czars: a Sketch of the Life of Marie Feodorowna, Wife of Paul I. and Mother of Alexander I. and Nicholas I." By Mrs. Colquhoun Grant. London: Murray. 1905. 12s. net.

THE period of this book is the time of Frederick the Great, of Marie Thérèse, of Louis XVI., of Marie Antoinette, of Napoleon Bonaparte. It was also the period of Russia's entry as a first-class Power into the councils of European politics, entitling her to be one of the dictators of peace at the Congress of Paris after Napoleon's downfall. Mrs. Colquhoun Grant's volume however touches but slightly upon these momentous political events. The heroine of the book, Princess Dorothea of Württemberg, known in Russian history

as Maria Feodorowna, the wife of Paul I., the mother of two Tsars, has not received attention from writers of note. The explanation no doubt is that however estimable her character and lovable her nature, she was in no wise a remarkable woman. Neither was her life sufficiently dramatic to kindle the imagination of the romanticist. She was a typical German, with a calm, serene if not phlegmatic temperament; warm-hearted and strong in constitution. She was an admirable wife and mother. Her wifely devotion indeed made her blind to her husband's eccentricities in public and his unfaithfulness at home. Had Maria Feodorowna not been of such a placid, contented disposition, she would probably have resented her husband's attachment to Mademoiselle Nelidov, her lady-in-waiting, and would have rebelled against her own dreamy existence at the Russian Court where she soon succumbed completely to the influence of her nearest entourage. She permitted herself to be overshadowed by her imperious, dogmatic mother-in-law, who arrogated the right to control the entire education and bringing-up of the royal grandchildren. The strange, enigmatical character of Paul I. whilst it alternately repels and puzzles us, is far more interesting than that of his wife. Born "by order" of an empress, and the son of an illustrious empress, Paul nevertheless proved himself to be the most incapable ruler who ever ascended the throne of Russia, with the exception of the imbecile Peter III. According to her own Memoirs, Catharine the Great had been married ten years without issue. The Empress Elizabeth, then reigning, despaired of a direct heir to the throne and directed that the peremptory "order" mentioned above should be communicated to the wife of the heir apparent with the result that on 1 October 1754 Catharine gave birth to Paul. His mother had no chance of nursing a parental affection for him. He was brought up completely outside her influence, his grandmother assuming the whole responsibility of his education. This unnatural separation of mother and son, and the want of a father's guidance had naturally much to do with the estrangement of Paul from his mother in subsequent years. A total absence of any essential training in state matters or initiative into the affairs of government of a newly born empire rendered Paul mentally unfit for the heavy responsibilities of a ruler of Russia. The gloomy surroundings of his childhood only helped to accentuate the inherent moroseness of his nature, and he early showed signs of a disposition both sinister and dangerous. His first brief marriage when still almost a boy with a princess of Darmstadt proved an ill-assorted affair. But under the genial influence of the first years of his union with Maria Feodorowna his human side seemed for a time to expand. Then gradually the old moodiness and moroseness crept back. His eccentricities developed into manias. His moments of gentleness were succeeded by intervals of wild ferocity, justice yielding to caprice and cruelty. According to Mrs. Grant there was something of a Hamlet in this Paul; we should say something of a parody of Hamlet. From his earliest youth the mystery surrounding his parentage and the suspicious circumstances of his ostensible father's death disquieted his mind. His short reign of five years as is well known ended in a Palace revolution and his assassination which was in effect applauded by the whole nation. The events surrounding this tragedy however are but side lights in the current of Mrs. Colquhoun Grant's narrative.

With merits as an entertainment this book is marred as an authoritative portrayal of local colour by certain inaccuracies, which inadvertently offer an illustration of the usual difficulty experienced by a foreigner in attempting to write correctly about Russia from impressions gathered indirectly from second-hand foreign sources. We have never heard, for instance, of Russian peasants "steeping black (rye) bread in oil" for their daily food. Their ordinary drink kvass is not "a strong spirit made of grain", but a very harmless mild beverage made from this same rye bread. Neither can we endorse Mrs. Colquhoun Grant's statement that the Russian peasant makes no abuse of strong drink, and is not an habitual drunkard. We regret to state that as a rule he is known to indulge in bouts of vodka. It is his one luxury unfortunately, and not

"the steaming hot bath indulged in by the whole nation on Saturday nights". The first ruler in Russia who took the name of Tsar (an abbreviation of Cæsar, not "the corrupt orthography of Veliki Kniaz") was Ivan III. and not Ivan IV. Peter the Great again did not "abdicate in favour of his wife Catharine I.", though on some occasions he did allow her wide latitude in framing his counsels. Catharine II.'s severity and want of confidence in her son Paul, on which Mrs. Colquhoun Grant expatiates rather freely, did not spring alone from the untoward circumstances of his birth and early childhood, but also from her conviction that he had the germs of incipient madness in him from his boyhood. The clever, intensely patriotic stateswoman foresaw the evil and dangerous consequences which would accrue from Paul's administration of the splendid empire which she had built up during her brilliant and popular reign. Reaction and a period of inertness and dissatisfaction would have been inevitable even with far more intellectually vigorous successors. As to Maria Feodorowna, her closing years—she lived to be almost seventy—received so little public notice that no Russian memoir of the day gave a passing word to the incidents of her death. An estimable woman, she remains a secondary factor in Russian history.

#### THE EARLY CHRISTIAN CONVERTS.

"Christian Life in the Primitive Church." By E. von Dobschütz. Translated by G. Bremner and Edited by W. D. Morrison. London: Williams and Norgate. 1904. 10s. 6d.

IT is strange that it has been left to quite recent times to inquire into the exact moral state of the early Christians and into the thoughts and ideas by which their life was dominated. They have been from times immemorial praised or blamed, and their spiritual state examined in order to elicit the mind of the Apostles in their dealings with them; but only of late has the attempt been made to see Christianity through their eyes and to understand the influences for good and evil by which they were moulded. It has always been obvious that their comprehension of the higher teaching of S. Paul and his fellow-workers was very imperfect and that their rule of conduct was in some measure a compromise with the world which surrounded them. But it seemed reasonable to accept the obvious explanation that this was their own fault or at best their infirmity. The notion of a psychology of conversion, of conclusions to be drawn from carefully observed phenomena and of a judgment to be passed coolly and impartially, has not been prevalent till our own generation. That it has emerged and has been widely accepted as equitable is part of our debt to foreign missions. There was no consciousness of the peculiarity of their vocation, no self-criticism except of their own spirit, on the part of ancient or mediæval evangelists. They were a part, often a humble part, of the society they sought to influence, or they were ready, if they were aliens from the people they sought to win, to cast in their lot with them. It was not till the nineteenth century that large bodies of Christians came into existence whose spiritual guides, however sympathetic, were compelled to watch and guide from without the progress of their flock. Whether it were savagery as with the negro or the rigidity of an ancient civilisation as in India, the missionary was perplexed to see that there was something in the social state of his converts which denied him the satisfaction of moulding them into conformity with the model to which he was accustomed. It used to be regarded simply as a struggle of the powers of darkness against light; old-fashioned missionary reports are full of obviously sincere scriptural language to this effect. There is, of course, a permanent truth in this idea; but now it is universally regarded as a very imperfect explanation of a complex phenomenon. The Christianity of any race and generation is the resultant of several forces, and Providence works not only upon but by means of the material which lies to hand.

When the primitive records are examined, it is obvious that this was equally the case in the beginning of the

faith. It is true that the process of conversion was very different from that usual in modern times. There was no organisation, and none was needed. Every Christian was a missionary, and we never hear of ordained ministers as professionally employed for the purpose. Clergy, in fact, had no *raison d'être* apart from a body of Christians to whom they should minister. And the trend of population within the Roman Empire was exactly such as would best promote the diffusion of Christianity. Apart from military colonies, there was only one great stream of agricultural emigrants, that which poured from Southern Italy into Northern Africa, just as the same crowded region is now furnishing the Argentine Republic with a population. But everywhere Rome was enforcing order and levying taxes, and so compelling industry and teaching the value of money and of the comforts which it could purchase. And as the standard of civilisation rose the traders and artisans of the Greek-speaking East, the very class in which Christianity was strongest, pressed westward to supply the demand. Each Christian family became a centre of conversion, and in their isolation the little churches strengthened each other's faith by keeping up a steady correspondence. Christians in the truest sense were brethren; their community of belief and life was the strongest of bonds. And their profession of the faith was itself a test of character. The separation from the world, the risk of life which it involved could only be faced by a strong will. Half-heartedness, or double-mindedness as S. James and Hermas call it, was one of the worst of faults. But a strong will has its dangers. It accounts for, and indeed it alone explains, the extraordinary crop of heresies in the early Church; it accounts also in great measure for the strange moral laxity which we often find among the earliest converts. They had the courage to be Christians; this was the essential point and in comparison with it they regarded it as of little importance how, being Christians, they conducted themselves. Perhaps, as at some later times, the sense of danger tended to weaken rather than to brace the moral consciousness. Certainly the interest of the Christians in general came to be withdrawn from the high teachings of such evangelists as S. Paul, and often enough even the best of them were content with a range of thought and feeling far inferior to his. No kindred spirit to him arose before S. Augustine. But if we are shocked at times by the perversity of the Apostle's converts and by the level of practice and apprehension which we find in such writings as those of Hermas, we cannot in the light of a long experience be surprised. The same phenomena constantly recur. Dr. von Dobschütz has collected the evidence as to the practical effect of Christianity during its first century with a completeness, an intelligence and a sympathy which have not yet been equalled. There is abundance of shadow in the picture, but it is hopeful also. He finds that the history is one of increasing poverty of spiritual feeling but at the same time of steady moral progress. In modern mission it has often happened that after the first fervour of conversion there has been a sad recoil; and hope has come to be fixed upon the educative power of Christianity over the second and third generations and upon the directly spiritual force which the faith will then exercise. It is instructive and encouraging to find that this was the course of Christianity even in its first and purest days.

#### UNDERGRADUATE HISTORY.

**"Makers of Modern History: Louis Napoleon, Cavour and Bismarck."** By the Hon. Edward Cadogan. London: Murray. 1905. 8s. net.

SO far as we are aware, this is Mr. Cadogan's first contribution to political history, which perhaps accounts for his rushing into so difficult a situation. In the first place it is not easy to say anything new upon Louis Napoleon, Cavour, or Bismarck; and in the second to estimate rightly, or even brilliantly, their position in history requires a considerable equipment both critical and literary. It would be absurd to say that the writer as yet possessed either. He does not present us with any fresh point of view, his reflections too often give

proof of the commonplace "which hems us all in" and they are seldom, if ever, redeemed by flashes of original insight or that felicity and brightness of expression which in a French historian so often atone for the absence of originality. The faults of the book are greatly those of immaturity and the writer may possibly in time produce historical work of permanent value.

The careers of Mr. Cadogan's heroes were inextricably bound together by fate and it is impossible to deal with any one without treating of the others but, while one reduced his country for a time to a position hardly above that of a second-rate Power, the others converted theirs into something infinitely greater than they were before they entered on their careers. If the third Napoleon is to be estimated justly, he must be treated with rather more sympathy than is the fashion among modern writers. M. Ollivier has, it is true, endeavoured to bring out the really good intentions that underlay much in his policy, that looked Machiavellian to some or weak to others, but there are probably few more difficult tasks than to rehabilitate his reputation. The received idea that he was an unscrupulous adventurer who obtained his throne by fraud and murder does not tend to a calm survey of his reign and it is too readily forgotten that he would never have won his throne had not the sober opinion of France ardently desired stability at home as the first condition of political change. It would appear that Mr. Cadogan sees a resemblance between the XVIIIth Brumaire and the coup-d'état of 2 December, 1851, but the resemblance is more fanciful than real. The state of France was far graver in the first case than the second and the first Napoleon had far more excuse for his action than the third, though both were rather instruments than originators. But it would be a mistake to suppose that the suppression of talkers and dreamers by the substitution of Cæsarism for a republic was not on the whole welcome to France. It was, and had Louis Napoleon been as astute and cold-blooded as his contemporaries would have us believe he would at any rate have preserved his throne for his own lifetime. The extraordinary reputation for consummate statecraft so long enjoyed by him is a curious phenomenon, for he was outwitted both by Cavour and Bismarck years before the final catastrophe. Mr. Cadogan in his study of Bismarck says that during the famous interview at Biarritz Bismarck succeeded in convincing the French Emperor that it was for the interest of France that Prussia should be aggrandised. This is only a portion of the truth although the writer admits that Louis Napoleon charged the Prussian statesman afterwards with a promise to give him compensation and that "he took no steps to carry his promise into effect". The success of Bismarck's statecraft lay not so much in his persuasion of his rival as in the skill with which he evaded keeping his promise and when the Emperor claimed its fulfilment managed to put him in the wrong. Perhaps it would be more true still to say that Bismarck's success was due to his knowledge of character. It is clear that he did lead the Emperor to believe that he would have compensation and had he demanded his pound of flesh immediately on the German declaration of war with Austria and mobilised an army on the Rhine, he would have been successful. The French army in 1866 was far better organised and contained a far larger proportion of veteran soldiers than it did in 1870, but Louis Napoleon had persuaded himself that he could foresee a long war in which he would intervene as the compeller of peace between exhausted combatants and that France would then receive her own share of the plunder in a general settlement. The rapidity of Prussian action paralysed him and he failed quite as much through his own miscalculations as through Bismarck's duplicity.

Mr. Cadogan has done best in his study of Cavour, who enjoys a more enviable reputation with posterity than either of his contemporaries. For this he has to some extent to thank the happy occasion of his death. Had Bismarck not long survived the War of 1870 or at all events the Treaty of Berlin, he would have escaped the undignified squabbles of later years. As for the Italian's methods of policy, they were in no way more scrupulous than those of the great Prussian.

## GEOLOGY AND LITERATURE.

"Landscape in History and other Essays." By Sir Archibald Geikie. London: Macmillan. 1905. 8s. 6d. net.

THE main thought that emerges after reading these charming essays, written by Sir Archibald Geikie at intervals during the last twenty years, is the great value of style to the man of science. Any regular reader of the scientific literature (save the mark) poured out at the present day must have had frequent occasion to deplore, not merely the absence of elegant and lucid diction, but a surprising lack of form with abundance of ambiguity. In truth not the least difficult task of a worker in science is the endeavour to understand the meaning of his colleagues. It is not apparent why this should be, since scientific treatment ought to make for anything rather than obscurity. The fact that a man is at the pains to write and publish a paper, for which he gets no pay, implies a sincere wish to convey to others the results of his observations, and one would therefore look for some attempt at lucidity if nothing more. But publication too often depends on less altruistic motives; were there not mingled with the pure love of science some desire for personal fame and advancement, it is probable that half the scientific papers now issued would never be written. This is why some rush to the printer with half-digested observations, careless of everything except priority, while others multiply the titles of their papers often without increase or improvement of their contents. In this way a reputation for learning is soon acquired, especially by workers a little off the common road, who would gain nothing if their writings could be read with ease. Men of this stamp, however, do not go far. The thorough craftsman is the one who gains most by alliance with artistic skill, and to him the advantage comes when his papers are widely read. It is through distinction of style that the purely literary writer enlarges his circle of readers, and obviously it is by his method of presentation that the populariser of science also must gain his popularity. But it is equally true that the writer on technical science attains his desired recognition far more rapidly when he pays attention to the literary side of his work, instead of, in the late Lord Acton's phrase, "steeling himself against the charms of style". So far as immediate worldly success is concerned, it may safely be asserted that, of two scientific men, the one with the faculty of writing in a lucid and pleasing manner will soon outdistance him who relies solely upon scientific profundity. In the case of so distinguished a geologist as Sir Archibald Geikie, our meaning can hardly be misunderstood if we maintain that without his command of clear and graceful English he would not have become Director-General of the Geological Survey and Secretary to the Royal Society.

There is also a converse proposition, asserting the value of scientific knowledge to the man of letters. A glance down the publishers' lists certainly suggests that most of our professional *littérateurs* are hard put to it for matter to write about, and one would like to see their flood of eloquence turned into more productive channels. The facts of the natural world may form the subject of literature no less than of science; for in themselves they are neither the one nor the other. No more charming or more convincing proof of this need be asked than the essay entitled "Landscape and Imagination", particularly that part of it dealing with the history of Slieve League. Here it is the author's aim to prove that while the man of letters and the man of science may climb the mountain and gaze at the distant view with equal appreciation of its romance and its beauty, yet to the scientist alone is there revealed that marvellous series of changes by which the rocks were laid down, then raised up, and then carved out into peak and valley, crag and ravine, by forces still at work. One small patch of rock left on the summit of Slieve League tells the geologist of masses, many hundreds of feet thick, which have been removed from the whole north-west of Ireland by the constant but insensible operations of nature.

But there is a further claim on behalf of science.

Daily the demand is more urgent, not to say strident, that scientific methods should form a fundamental part of every man's education, and to this demand we are far from raising any objection. Above all, as Sir Archibald insists in his admirable address to the students of Birmingham University, should the faculty of observation be cultivated. But those advocates of scientific training do not advance their cause who ignore the need for development of other powers of the mind. Neither by example nor by precept is Sir Archibald of that party. Scarce one of these essays could have been written by a man who was not steeped in the Humanities—that fine old term which, originally opposed to Divinity, has gained in truth and force by its contrast with Materiality. Say what you will, the processes of bodily life, the story of the animal and plant world, the scarcely less mysterious gyrations and mutations of unorganised matter, all these, however alluring to the intellect, can never pierce to the deep-lying springs of sympathy or grip man's heart with the force of some simple tale of human love and death. It is the interweaving of history, mythology, and imagination with the dry light of scientific fact that constitutes the particular fascination of this book. Warmly then do we commend it,—to the humanist as opening for him a door to one of the many treasure-caves of science, to the science-student that he may learn from it what virtue can spring from the older learning even for him.

## THROUGH GERMAN SPECTACLES.

"The Trade Policy of Great Britain and her Colonies since 1860." By Carl Johannes Fuchs. London: Macmillan. 1905. 7s. 6d. net.

IT is unfortunate that books dealing with the fiscal question are almost inevitably written by partisans, and aim at maintaining a thesis rather than at scientific investigation of the actual facts. For this reason we unreservedly welcome this translation of a Freiburg professor's scholarly work. Written in 1892 it has remained unknown except to readers of the publications issued by the Verein für Sozialpolitik, and it now appears in an English translation revised by Professor Smart. To see ourselves as others see us is always salutary, and the view taken by Professor Fuchs is the more valuable because it is the result of an investigation undertaken by an economist of more than average ability, long before the present situation developed. Perhaps the views expounded in this book are not entirely new to those who have not studied economics solely to defend the conclusions of Ricardo, but they are presented with a clearness and force which command attention even if they do not carry conviction. Professor Fuchs sets himself to consider why England adopted the policy of free imports and how far the aims of Cobden and his fellows have been attended with success. Being a foreigner, he is not misled by a traditional hero-worship which refuses to consider the possibility of error or of the existence of sordid self-interest in the hero. Speaking to an audience who are not in the least concerned with the dearness or otherwise of the English loaf, he can criticise freely the failure of Cobdenism even to attain the unexalted ideal it set forth.

The ordinary story of England's conversion to free trade is that after vainly seeking wealth by high protection and finding poverty instead, the nation accepted joyfully the leadership of Cobden and Peel, and by throwing down the tariff walls succeeded in obtaining cheap food and the unassailable position of being the workshop of the world. Everyone except a few grasping landlords is supposed to have acquiesced in the "calico millennium", until a statesman seeking for personal gain proposed to bring back the experiences of the "Hungry Forties". This is the view of England's trade policy held by most uneducated and not a few educated people in this country, but Professor Fuchs shows that it is the veriest travesty of the real facts.

England adopted a "free trade" policy because under the stimulus of protection and helped by the Napoleonic wars she had become the workshop of the world and

feared no competitors. If only foreign nations would cease to protect their manufactures and would instead consent to be the economic dependents of England, supplying her with raw materials, all would be well. This cosmopolitanism advocated by Cobden was best for England simply because in the existing economic situation England stood to gain every time the removal of a foreign tariff left the continental rivals of her manufacturers less able to resist English dumping. Again, the manufacturers, believing in the wages fund theory, held that the cheaper food was by the importation of foreign corn the less wages would the workman want, and so the higher would be the master's share. The free importers professed to object to all that Nationalism stood for, but they were most insular and selfish where they professed to be most cosmopolitan. When the continental states preferred national independence Peel declared that tariff walls injured those who erected them more than those outside and therefore he and his disciples pushed their theories to the extremity of free imports. Resting upon the sure foundation of her earlier prosperity England even appeared to increase her lead in the race for wealth, but she made no converts to her economic doctrines. Indeed a very short taste of reciprocity was the furthest she ever achieved and then came the Franco-German war and the resulting revival of protection which was adopted to strengthen the national life and to provide the sinews of war. Then came also, though feeble at first, a steady reaction against Cobdenism, or "Manchesterism" as Professor Fuchs calls it. Industrial depression and steadily growing foreign competition seemed to disprove the extreme claims of the free importers, and nationalism in England showed itself in the birth of "fair trade leagues" and the desire for closer union with the colonies which we call Imperial Federation.

Professor Fuchs has some very interesting views upon the movements that in a way anticipated Mr. Chamberlain's proposals and his chapters on Colonial Trade Policy and Statistics are able to supply just the unbiassed opinion needed. As an ardent German patriot he foresaw long ago the meaning of this rapprochement between England and her colonies, and if he dares to hint that the acceptable time was allowed by England to pass by unused, can we wonder? We believe that he is wrong, that the failures of the past are now impossible, and that the Zollverein in some form or other is at hand.

Does the Cobdenite party really desire complete free trade? Our author points out that in the present highly-developed state of German manufactures, complete free trade would be a dubious blessing to England. Our natural advantages and our acquired advantages are now alike small and we should soon be in the position of the continental manufacturers after 1815. This is the real meaning of the outcry against "dumping". We can only keep up our industrial standing by developing our hitherto undeveloped lands—the colonies—as foreign nations have developed their wastes. We have no monopoly of economic prosperity, "free imports" are no "open sesame" to wealth. We can only progress by adapting our policy to the ever-changing needs of time.

#### PLACES OF OLD PILGRIMAGE.

"Shrines of British Saints." By J. Charles Wall. (The Antiquary's Books.) London: Methuen. 1905. 7s. 6d. net.

THE last time we reviewed a book by Mr. Wall it was about devils. His present subject is the delubra deorum. The little Welsh island of Bardsey is said to contain the bodies of 20,000 saints, and Glastonbury was called Roma altera because of the multitude of holy men and women interred there, while at S. Augustine's, Canterbury, now a great missionary college, it was said to be impossible to move a step without treading on the resting-place of some illustrious and famous servant of God. To find actual shrines of British or Saxon saints it is almost necessary to cross to Latin and Teuton countries, which were all especially inundated—the expression is S. Bernard's—by

Irish missionary ascetics. The skull of S. Fursey is still at Péronne in Picardy, though the reliquary was almost destroyed in 1870 by a fire caused by Prussian shells. S. Gobhan's body is preserved in the village of S. Gobain near Laon, that of S. Etto at Dompiere, SS. Cadoc and Adrian are honoured at S. Riquier in Picardy. The relics of a number of Keltic hallows were destroyed in the French Revolution. But the principal shrine of S. Columban is to be seen at Bobio. Mr. Wall mentions several Irish saints who are enshrined in the Low Countries. Of Saxon saints, S. Boniface's bones (or bone), of course, must be sought at Fulda, S. Willibrord has his shrine at Epternacht, to which the "leaping pilgrimage" is made every Whitsun Tuesday, and remains of S. Willibald and of S. Richard, the West-Saxon King, are in different places. A former primate of All England, S. Edmund of Canterbury, has a noble sepulchre at Pontigny.

If any shrined relics remain at all in these islands they are reliquiae Danaum atque immitis Achillis—all that is left by the sixteenth-century iconoclasts and their savage robber chief. Marillac, the French envoy, declared the avarice of Henry to be so insatiable that all the wealth of the world would not content his ambition—"whence has come the despoiling of every church in which there was anything to take". Mr. Wall remarks that royal zeal against much "superstition and uncertain legends of idolatry" while it plundered at Lincoln the rich feretory of Bishop Hugh, spared the shrine of his "little" namesake on which there was nothing worth stealing. It was not mutilated till the Great Rebellion. Henry VIII., however, besides his desire to transform the sepulchres of the saints into coin had a real spite against themselves. They represented a regnum which was not de hoc mundo, and the supreme headship which they had acknowledged over the Church had not been that of what Tudor writers call the magistrate. Marillac's observation that "S. Thomas is declared a traitor because his relics were adorned with gold and precious stones" is only half the truth. "The tomb of S. Thomas the Martyr", writes a Venetian pilgrim to Canterbury about 1500, "exceedeth all belief. Notwithstanding its great size it is all covered with plates of pure gold; yet the gold is scarcely seen, because it is covered with precious stones, as sapphires, ballasses, diamonds, rubies, emeralds; and, wherever the eye turns, something more beautiful than the rest is observed. . . . Some cameos are of such a size that I am afraid to name it; but everything is far surpassed by a ruby. . . . They say it was given by a King of France". This was the Regale of France, which our Henry afterwards wore on his thumb. His spoilers carried off immense coffers full of jewels, and twenty-six carts were employed to remove the offerings at the shrine. But the tyrant's greed over the grave was surpassed by his hatred of the long-dead man who lay in it. The bones of the martyr were burnt or scalded, and the crypt where he had first lain was turned into a wine-cellar. Mr. Wall discusses fully the appearance and locality of this, the most famous shrine in England.

The Reformation vicissitudes of S. Frideswide's ashes at Oxford, and how they were finally mixed with those of Peter Martyr's nun-wife, form a well-known story. The watching-chamber for the custos feretri remains there, and the saint's shrine has been recently in part pieced together. Another restoration has been Mr. Micklethwaite's patient reconstruction, by means of over 2,000 fragments, of the sepulchre of the proto-martyr of Britain. At Hexham the pieces of S. Acca's Cross have been found and put together. At Winchcombe in 1815 the long-lost relics of S. Kenelm, the little Mercian king, and the knife with which he was killed, were discovered—and then thrown away! It was an age which had outgrown reverence and thought it had outgrown superstition. Much the same desecration has been perpetrated at Perranzabuloe—S. Piran in Sabulo (why, Mr. Wall, "in Zabula"?). The reverent reinterment at Durham a few years ago of the bones of S. Cuthbert, and, in the same coffin, of the cloven cranium of S. Oswald, is a happy contrast. Mr. Wall quotes from the "Acta Sanctorum" the detailed account of the examination, exposition and translation of these hallowed relics in 1104, and adds a

rather gruesome account of the rifling of the tomb in 1541, when the body was only not scattered because it was entire. The tomb was again opened in 1827, when the saint's skeleton was found clad in five distinct silken vestures; the right hand was raised to the breast in benediction. The original shrine of S. Cuthbert was demolished, of course, by Henry VIII's visitors. That of the Venerable Bede also, but the saint's bones were reinterred. They were examined in 1831.

The only shrine of a canonised English saint remaining—apart from the reliquary of S. Eanswythe at Folkestone, discovered in 1885—is that by which our kings are anointed and crowned; but we can form but little idea of the magnificence of the Confessor's tomb from its present condition. The unfinished wooden canopy dates from Mary Tudor. It may have seemed ominous that James II.'s mutilated coronation was the occasion of an accident to the chest containing S. Edward's bones, whereby they and his regal ornaments were exposed to view for the last time. The King had them re-enclosed in an iron case of great strength. The Confessor's tomb stands for the continuity of English history. The marble altar used at coronations was rebuilt in 1902. Mention should also be made of the remains of certain celebrated Welsh shrines—those of S. David and S. Caradoc in S. David's Cathedral, and of S. Teilo and of "Dubric the high saint", who married Arthur and Guinevere, at Llandaff.

#### THE ROSE OF TO-DAY.

"The Amateur Gardener's Rose-Book." By the late Dr. Julius Hoffmann. Translated by John Weathers. London: Longmans. 1905. 7s. 6d. net.

IT is forty-seven years since the first rose-show—for London at any rate—was held in the now defunct S. James' Hall, at which Dean Hole, its leading spirit, confesses that "the cisterns of his heart overflowed". Now probably few people, even amongst enthusiastic rosarians, realise how entirely the whole list of roses has been recast since then, what an entirely new generation has sprung up. Of those which the Dean describes as "the choicest roses of the world" only four survive in the National Rose Society's present exhibition list: one hybrid perpetual—noble old Général Jacqueminot—and three teas now not very often seen, Madame Bravy, Niphetos, and Souvenir d'Elise Vardon. It is an amusing experiment, if one has enough old roses in the garden, to set up a box of what our fathers thought good enough for exhibition—Coupe d'Hébé, Brennus, Géant des Batailles, and so on—and this will better than anything else give the measure of the enormous advance that has been made in depth and substance by the rose. Nowadays an exhibitor is horror-struck if even one bloom "shows an eye" before the judging begins; then, as the Dean remarks, their collections used to have as many eyes as Argus. Shelley must surely have been moved by poetic prevision when he depicts the rose as

"like a nymph to the bath address,  
Which unveiled the depth of her glowing breast";

because in 1820 he can hardly have had anything better than some old damask or moss to describe from. We must regard the whole list then as practically new, though still in a continual state of development in the direction of substance, not of mere size.

Still it may be noted that with all the changes in varieties, the divisions of kinds seem to remain permanent. New varieties come out in numbers every year, but no new type appears, nor seems likely to do so; the possible variations seem to have found their natural limits. Not long ago a rose was either a hybrid perpetual or a tea, unless it came under the convenient but miscellaneous category of "garden roses". In 1882 Lady Mary Fitzwilliam was raised by Bennett from a cross between Victor Verdier and Devoniensis, and this was apparently the first deliberate crossing of the two types. The famous and beautiful rose, La France, which is fifteen years older, is almost obviously a cross of this kind, though Guillot, its fortunate raiser,

never knew it, we believe, as anything but the seedling of a tea. With the improved methods of hybridising, these crosses between the two main types became every year more frequent and more important. But as soon as they were sufficiently numerous, the formation of a new class for hybrid teas was necessary for exhibitions, because this new type was in general too pale and too delicate to have a fair chance against hybrid perpetuals, but too strong and too high-coloured to be fairly matched against teas. This is the only further division of kinds that has taken place, but though it was thus inevitable it is likely to cause grave perplexity in the future. The class ought, if that be possible, to be confined to first crosses only between a hybrid perpetual and a tea. When a hybrid tea is crossed again with a tea, as has been done, the lines of demarcation begin to look very blurred indeed.

The growth of this new class of hybrid teas has been the most obvious change in the higher rose-growing of late years. This is hardly to be wondered at, seeing that they combine so many of the merits of both parents; the frost-resisting power and larger size of the hybrid perpetuals, with the freedom from autumn rust and the more "remontant" character of the teas, the true perpetuals among roses. The National Rose Society's Catalogue of 1902 only assigns nineteen to this class, but ten of them were nearly new roses, and the number is increasing out of all proportion to the parent types. Of the Irish pedigree roses of the last six years more than three-fourths are hybrid teas, while in the lists of roses recommended by the great growers for next year we find about five-and-twenty hybrid teas against four teas and four or five hybrid perpetuals.

The introduction of this new class then we take to be the most significant mark of development, but a similar process is going on within the class itself. For the one fault that could be charged against hybrid teas, the want of sufficiently full and varied colour, is evidently being rapidly overcome, and more of the characteristics of what we may perhaps call the male parent are steadily coming in. The ground tones of the class are still mainly of the tea type, creamy white, pale yellow, salmon flesh, or silvery rose, these last often touched with orange shading, but it has long had a well-established self-pink in Caroline Testout, and a splendid carmine in Marquise Litta when she could be caught at her fleeting best. Now some of the newest hybrid teas seem distinctly to have advanced a step further, and to be challenging their paternal ancestors in colour as well as in size and shape. A glorious specimen from Belfast of a new deep crimson rose, with the rather unromantic name of J. B. Clark, which attracted a continuous throng of enthusiasts at the show in the Botanic Gardens, was—in the morning at any rate—as grand and masculine a rose as ever has been exhibited.

Another feature that must lately have struck observers is that the intention of Germany not to be left out of account is not confined to Morocco or the Far East. Once nearly all roses hailed from France, and English growers hardly did more than serve as intermediaries. Then there was a revolt on this side of the Channel, headed by Henry Bennett, the raiser among many others of the invaluable Mrs. John Laing, and before long the centre of rose-growing shifted from Lyon or the Seine-et-Marne to Essex or Hertfordshire. Ireland of course then was bound to show that she was not going to be indebted to Great Britain, and Newtownards in County Down has for the last ten years been the principal distributing centre of new roses. But it cannot fail to be noticed that names even more terrible for the poor gardeners than the old "Expositions" and "Souvenirs" are appearing with increasing frequency—such inviting ones, for example, as Grossherzogin Victoria Melita, Domcapitula Dr. Layer, Frau Lilla Rautenstrauch, and so on. That these roses are not going to be only names is sufficiently proved by the superb Frau Karl Druschki, the noblest white rose ever yet raised, and without a fault except perhaps a faint suspicion of hollowness in the majestic centre. This comes from the nursery of Lambert of Trier, and thus has added a new distinction even to famous Augusta Trevirorum.

A further proof of the German intention to challenge a place may be seen in Dr. Hoffmann's book, which has

been somewhat obtrusively advertised, but does not approach in usefulness Mr. Foster-Melliar's "Book of the Rose", and far less in delightful reading Dean Hole's "Book about Roses". However, the book is probably worth adding to a rosarian's shelf. The most curious point that strikes us about it is that it makes no mention of exhibition, which plays so large a part in the English writers; and probably it is a natural consequence of this that not more than one of the blooms represented would be fit to show in a box.

But it must not be thought that the superb evolution which has taken place in the fulness, shape, and colour of the exhibition rose has crushed out the decorative roses, which on the contrary are growing in number and variety, and attracting more admirers year by year. The Penzance hybrid sweet-briars were a fine new class. The present tendency is rather to find new colours for polyanthas in magnificent clusters like swarms of bees. And new decorative effects are being found for exhibition roses of which every bloom is perfect in itself. The tall bamboo tripods for eighteen roses of one sort were a notable new departure at the Botanic Gardens, and the superb towers of "A. K. Williams" and "White Maman Cochet" combined individual perfection of bloom with a novel effect of dignity in massing.

#### NOVELS.

**"Mrs. Alemere's Elopement."** By Charles Marriott. London: Nash. 1905. 6s.

It is impossible to avoid a sense of keen disappointment after reading this book. From the ordinary novel one expects little. But Mr. Charles Marriott's work is so good that we feel it should be much better. He seems ever about to redeem a brilliant promise. But he never quite "gets there." He arrests the attention; he interests but he does not convince. There is a sense of strain, of arduous effort about his work which fills the reader with restlessness, with vague dissatisfaction. The characters and the situation do not ring quite true. Their actions, their emotions, are all obviously part of a carefully elaborated scheme. They lack inspiration. It may be that Mr. Marriott is afraid to let himself go. "Mrs. Alemere's Elopement" is a psychological study. It is the story of a woman's crooked attempts to work out her own destiny. Mrs. Alemere, young, beautiful, highly strung, artistic, is married "incompatibly" to an ordinary brute-beast of a man. To escape from her yoke she takes advantage of the chivalrous devotion of Dick Feddon, who allows his name to be used in an undefended divorce suit brought by the deserted husband. Instead of using her freedom to devote herself to her deliverer Mrs. Alemere plays a double game and finally surreptitiously marries Dick Palliser whom she has all along passionately adored. This Dick Palliser is represented as a traveller and explorer, something of a genius as a writer and as the possessor of an intimate knowledge of the subtle character of Evelyn Palliser. We are told all this but there is nothing in Palliser's actions or words which tend to convince us. On the contrary we are met by the fact that when he discovers his wife's duplicity he immediately starts on his travels again, leaving her alone in London to work out her own salvation—a thing which, granted the character of the man as described by Mr. Marriott, it is quite impossible to imagine. For he had taken her, knowing her faults and frailty, as the one woman in the world who existed for him and for whom he existed. Here as in other places the author's psychology is at fault, since he leaves us with the feeling that his characters have acted thus not because they must but because he wills it so. On the two chief persons of the book—Mrs. Alemere and Dick Feddon—the author has expended his utmost pains. The others are shadowy. But if as a story and as a study in character Mr. Marriott's book is something of a failure it has redeeming features which place it on a platform quite apart from the work of most modern novelists. Mr. Marriott has a sense of style, and although he is occasionally somewhat hampered by his devotion to the methods of Mr. George

Meredith, he has a knowledge of the value of words and his language is never slipshod nor inappropriate. Many of the best things in the book are said by the way and have no connection with the story. Some of the descriptions are admirable and there are occasions when Mr. Marriott rises to genuine heights of feeling and insight. He has in him more weighty matter than he has yet produced.

**"Tongues of Gossip."** By A. Curtis Sherwood. London: Fisher Unwin. 6s.

One wonders why "Tongues of Gossip" is called a novel, consisting as it does of long and very dull conversations, on religious subjects, between various types of Churchpeople, Nonconformists and "liberals". There is no semblance of a plot and scarcely any incident, the characterisation is of the feeblest, the bigoted vicar about whom the "tongues" are chiefly busy being merely a grotesque puppet. The author is apparently eager to tilt against bigotry, narrow conventions, and hypocrisy as personified in her creations, but her weapons of satire and argument are so inadequate and feeble, her sense of humour is so slight, her ideas are so commonplace and vague, that she is unable to arouse the slightest interest in her contests. We are equally indifferent to the absurd dolls she sets up, and to the controversial "shies" with which she knocks them down—it is all dull, stale, and, as is the case in most religious discussions, unprofitable.

**"The Scarlet Pimpernel."** By Baroness Orczy. London: Greening. 1905. 6s.

A melodramatic but picturesque and well told tale of the French Revolution and the times of George III. The writer's powers of characterisation are considerable. Sir Percy and Lady Blakeney, Sir Andrew Ffoulkes and M. Chauvelin are not mere dummy figures but living personalities. Baroness Orczy has entered into the spirit of the period, and though she does not drag in a great number of historical personages or insist overmuch on historical details she manages to convey the atmosphere of history. The story never flags.

#### NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

**"With the Pilgrims to Mecca."** By Hadji Khan and Wilfrid Sparroy, with an Introduction by Professor A. Vambéry. London and New York: John Lane. 1905. 12s. 6d. net.

To visit the holy places of his religion is the one longing desire of every faithful follower of the Prophet. The same journey, it is true, prompted by entirely different motives, is the dream of every European traveller, though we believe that but two have ever entered the sacred precincts of Mecca. Closed to the Christian world, for centuries an impenetrable veil of mystery has shrouded the Mahommedan Holy of Holies; and though Burton accomplished the journey, his descriptive experiences were meagre in the extreme. In the present work, however, every detail of the "pilgrim's progress" from his arrival at Jeddah is minutely set forth, and that with a force and local colour that increase one's interest. The dangers of the road, the constant prayers, the crowds of faithful worshippers, the entry into the holy city, together with the countless formulæ in and around the Ka'bah itself are fascinating in the extreme. One closes the book and unconsciously admires the law of the Prophet. But with it all there is nothing to satisfy the repentant Western craving for love and future happiness. The Mahommedan prayer is but the prolonged wail of the unworthy soul, thirsting for salvation: it is the "vox clamantis in deserto" personified. In the awful solitude of his unapproachable magnificence sits the Allah of the Prophet; there is no link between Creator and created; He is a being more distant, more terrible than the God of Abraham, and yet for thirteen centuries has Mahomet's uncongenial description of the Almighty satisfied the "faithful". It is repeatedly maintained that fervent profession is the one and only essential element in religion. If such be the case the future of the Moslim world is assured. But the true test of a religion lies far deeper than this; it must embody a system of moral ethics beneficial to all mankind; it must be applicable in every clime and for all times; love not fear must be its greatest constituent element. In all these respects however the religion of the Prophet fails. One has only to travel in the East to see the utter stagnation wrought by Mahommedanism; one has only to read the present work to be convinced of the annihilating effects of the Prophet's creed.

"In Remotest Barotseland." By Colonel Colin Harding. London: Hurst & Blackett. 1905. 10s. 6d. net.

"Zanzibar in Contemporary Times." By R. N. Lyne. London: Hurst and Blackett. 1905. 7s. 6d. net.

Two degrees south of Zanzibar one arrives in the kingdom of Lewanika—Barotseland—a country little explored and less heard of, although its ruler is the most enlightened of all African monarchs. Unless we are very much mistaken, however, the country will shortly be of great commercial value, as owing to the indefatigable explorations of Colonel Harding mineral possibilities have been discovered which are likely to tempt the biggest financier. In the author's own words "no literary work is here attempted": he merely strings together the disjointed notes of a diary, and be it said with the most pleasing results. It is true that the reader is regaled with rather an over-dose of travelling experiences, but the theme has its attractions for many. Yet African travels are one and all founded on precisely similar lines. There are the long marches through swamp and forest: loss of baggage, lack of food and the inevitable malaria. Such inconveniences are the rule in Africa, and Barotseland is no exception. It may be remembered that King Lewanika paid a visit to England at the time of the Coronation; and although his reception pleased him greatly, the fact that he induced the British Government to assume protectorate rights in Barotseland delighted him a great deal more. That the slave-trade is still carried on in the country is not surprising: we were not prepared though for Colonel Harding's remarks as to the great extent of the traffic, particularly in the land of a monarch who professes the greatest admiration for all that is English. King Lewanika is loud in his condemnation of such a trade; it is our duty to see that his abhorrence takes a practical form. For a book of this description more photographs would have been acceptable: the map might have been discarded, for after all the reader will find more interest in scenery than in the geographical situation of the towns which were visited by the author.

A good deal has been written about our East African Protectorates of late, and as the country becomes more developed the supply of literature is sure to increase. The sad part is that successive authors should waste so much time and space in going over old ground. This is exactly the fault we have to find with Mr. Lyne. He takes us back to the days of Bonaparte and narrates every incident connected with the country down to the bombardment of Zanzibar in 1896. More than half the book is an historical review. There is much of interest concerning the slave trade; there is more about Seyd Said, that astonishing ruler of Muscat who extended his empire to the African littoral and very nearly annexed the island of Madagascar. The best parts of the book are the concluding chapters on the "People", "Climate", "Finance" and "Commerce", &c. Here we find just the information necessary for a practical forecast of the future; information that is alone of any contemporary worth. We wish that subsequent authors would bear this in mind. As regards the commercial outlook in these lands, it is truly astounding to observe the strides towards monopoly which are being made by the Germans. They are to be found everywhere: traders, hotel-keepers, ivory-hunters, and shipping agents—nothing seems to escape their financial notice. The fact is the Englishman is not content nowadays with small profits: he looks to great enterprises with colossal returns. The result is that the foreigner is left undisturbed to lay the foundation of trade, which we fondly imagine will eventually fall into our hands. There is a maxim to the effect that pounds can take care of themselves if the pence are safeguarded. The English trader however in East Africa reads all political economy upside down.

"The Tadhkiratu 'l-Awliya (Memoirs of the Saints) of Faridu 'ddin 'Attar" (Part I.) edited in the original Persian, with Preface, Indices, and Variants, by Reynold A. Nicholson; with a critical Introduction by Mirza Muhammad b. 'Abdu 'l-Wahhab Qaswini. Price 18s. London: Luzac & Co. 1905.—This is a critical edition of one of the chief sources of our knowledge of the lives and doctrines of the early Persian mystics. The author, who lived at the beginning of the twelfth century, compiled at least seventy-two biographies of them, a critical text of which is now put into our hands by Mr. Nicholson. The present volume contains forty of these biographies which have been edited with care and skill.

Stanford's County of London Map in its new and revised form, in twenty sheets issued in flat portfolio at 16s., is the best and simplest map of the capital published. The sections are well arranged and various tints show at a glance the nature of the special features, such as open spaces, main roads, waterways, &c. The whole map extends from Barking on the east to Ealing on the west, from Hornsey on the north to the verge of Croydon on the south. Anyone therefore seeking guidance as to some place just beyond the confines of the county is not likely to turn to Stanford's "London" in vain.

(Continued on page 318.)

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"Journal des Savants." Juillet-Août. Paris: Hachette. 3fr. each.

The July number opens with a contribution by M. N. Valois on "Le schisme de Bâle au XV<sup>e</sup> siècle." M. L. Léger gives us the concluding part of his study on "L'œuvre littéraire de Catherine II." and M. François Picavet reviews, under the heading "Les éditions de Roger Bacon", the latest publications on the great thirteenth-century scholar's works. M. A. Waddington's "La marine française sous Louis XVI." is perhaps the most important article in this number, which closes with a notice by M. H. Omont as to the fate of the library of the Spanish scholar Pedro Galès, who died at Saragossa in 1595, a prisoner of the Inquisition.

In the number for August, M. Guiffrey reviews the first part of the third volume of M. Maurice Fenaille's "Etat général des tapisseries de la Manufacture des Gobelins" devoted to the eighteenth-century tapestries. M. M. Brillouin's "Correspondance de Volta et de van Marum" is a valuable contribution to the history of natural philosophy, and M. M. Roques' "Méthodes étymologiques" will greatly interest students of the origins of the French language. M. H. Omont gives us another valuable contribution to the history of learning in France, in his "La publication des 'Notices et extraits des manuscrits' par l'Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, à la fin du XVIII<sup>e</sup> siècle."

Among the short notices, M. Maurice Croiset's are always conspicuous by the conscientious and scholarly way in which he gives us the gist of the books he surveys: such is especially the case in this number, with his review of M. Camille Gaspar's "Essai de chronologie pindarique", which has now become classical everywhere. The summaries of the sittings of the French Institute and of the principal foreign Academies are most useful as usual.

"L'Art et les Artistes." Août. Paris. 1f.50.

There exists at the Comédie française a very interesting gathering of works of art relating to the history of the illustrious theatre, and of its more celebrated "sociétaires". Under the heading "Un Musée de l'art dramatique", M. Jules Truffier, a "sociétaire" himself, and not one of the less conspicuous, proposes to form these works of art into a museum, and points out the more important ones, of which beautiful illustrations are given. M. H. de Chennevières, the eminent head-keeper of the pictures at the Louvre, studies with his unsurpassed competence "Edouard Detaille peintre décorateur", and M. Pierre Jan gives us in "Le Mausolée d'un Empereur" a most interesting notice, splendidly and copiously illustrated, on Maximilian I.'s noble mausoleum at Innsbruck, with its grand surrounding of statues. "Le mois artistique" by M. Maurice Guillemot is full of useful information and artistic news of all sorts.

For this Week's Books see page 320.

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